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ABSTRACT

The issue of access at the level of graduate and professional training is multifaceted. Absolutely nothing about this issue is unidimensional and singularly focused except perhaps the persistent effort of black Americans to attain their rights to higher education. Hence, this study highlights such important components of the access issue as admissions policies, practices and results, enrollment trends and patterns in graduate and professional schools; barriers to professional practices; and efforts to increase the number and proportions of blacks in graduate and professional schools throughout the United States. Although the scope of concern here is more national than regional, in many instances, special attention is given to conditions existing in those states immediately affected by the decision in the Adams v. Richardson case. (Author)

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ACCESS OF BLACK STUDENTS TO GRADUATE AND PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS

by
James E. Blackwell, Ph.D.
University of Massachusetts at Boston

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
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FOREWORD

The Southern Education Foundation presents here a paper by Dr. James E. Blackwell that was prepared for the conference on Equality of Access in Postsecondary Education. This conference, which was held in Atlanta on July 17, 18, and 19, 1975, was jointly sponsored by SEF and the Ford Foundation. Dr. Blackwell's paper is one of several commissioned for the conference. The paper is reproduced here from Dr. Blackwell's original manuscript and has not been edited by SEF.

At least two other occasional papers from this conference will also be printed and distributed; one is addressed to financial aid and the other is Dr. Alexander Astin's paper, "The Myth of Equal Access in Public Higher Education." A summary of the conference by John Egerton has been published under the title "Equality of Access in Postsecondary Education."

Copies of the Egerton report are available from SEF without cost; the Blackwell paper and the other papers will be available at a cost of $2.00 each.

Southern Education Foundation
811 Cypress Street, N. E.
Atlanta, Georgia 30308

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James E. Blackwell, Ph.D.
University of Massachusetts at Boston

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Special appreciation is also extended to Ms. Maureen Hayes and Mrs. Anne Knight who typed this manuscript.

The purpose of this study is to examine some of the more salient factors affecting access of black American students to graduate and professional schools in the United States. Since the current shortage of professionally trained black Americans is likely to be protracted, an explication of the important issues related to problems of access becomes especially crucial at this particular point in time.

Problems of "access" do indeed have a history; they are not, therefore, exclusively phenomena of the post "Brown v. Board of Education" period. Neither are they primarily a residue of the Adams v. Richardson era. Hence, attention will initially be called to the historical antecedents of both the Brown and Adams cases.

The issue of "access" at the level of graduate and professional training is multi-faceted. Absolutely nothing about this issue is unidimensional and singularly focused except perhaps the persistent effort of black Americans to attain their rights to higher education. Hence, this study highlights such important components of the access issue as admissions policies, practices and results, enrollment trends and patterns in graduate and professional schools; barriers to the professional practices exemplified in bar examinations and board certification; and efforts to increase the number and proportions of blacks in graduate and professional schools throughout the United States. Although the scope of concern here is more national than regional, in many instances, special attention is given to conditions existing in those states immediately affected by the decision in the Adams v. Richardson case.

Historical Antecedents to Brown and Adams

Efforts to dismantle the dual systems of education sanctioned by the

Plessy v. Ferguson Case almost eighty years ago began shortly after the decision was rendered. All but a handfull of ultra-conservative historians and pseudo-social scientists have debunked the notion that blacks quietly accepted educational apartheid as an indestructible social order without possibility of either profound social change or major over-hauling. However, it is important to note that a dual system of higher education had already begun in the decades immediately preceding Plessy v. Ferguson with the establishment of black colleges and universities. Their origins, however, can be traced to the pernicious racism, prejudice and stereotyped thinking which denied blacks access to post-secondary education. Consequently, the very founding of the 123 black colleges and universities in the United States was a function of rampant patterns of exclusion codified by de jure mandates and reinforced by de facto practices. Hence, black colleges trained black Americans when either few "predominantly white colleges" would permit them access or when broad community needs were unmet as a consequence of this denial. Nevertheless, Plessy v. Ferguson focused upon the compelling urgency to use just law as a major weapon to dismantle a system created by unjust legal decrees. In this process, that of attacking educational apartheid - the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People was always in the forefront.

For example, it has been noted that:

> "...discrimination and segregation set boundaries on what black students could achieve in professional and graduate training particularly in the South and border states. The situation was also true in the North, where admission quotas were enacted. Blacks seeking postcollegiate training found it necessary to "go North" if they could afford the financial burden. Few ever received monetary support from Northern and Western institutions, which again served as an impediment to educational attainment.
>
> To combat discrimination in higher education the NAACP embarked upon a plan to alter the structure of admissions patterns. The basic goal was to open the doors of graduate and professional schools in the Southern and border states to black college graduates. The first successful test case came in 1938 when the U.S. Supreme Court decided in Missouri ex rel. Gaines that the University of Missouri must admit Lloyd Gaines to its

school of Law. This was a milestone achievement, since many states had required blacks to accept out-of-state tuition grants to finance postcollegiate education rather than admit them to their all-white universities. Gaines was not required to accept this type of grant. Another major breakthrough occurred in 1946 when Ada Lois Sipuel applied for admission to the school of law at the University of Oklahoma. The state of Oklahoma was not inclined to establish separate law schools for black students, as had several Southern states. Rather, despite the ruling in the Gaines case, the state attempted to force her to accept an out-of-state tuition grant. She refused, and, finally, in 1948, the University of Oklahoma was required to admit Ada Sipuel.

Two other cases pertaining to graduate education were significant in the earlier period: the Sweatt case in Texas and the McLauren case in Oklahoma. In the Texas case Heman M. Sweatt, a mail carrier, had applied for admission to the University of Texas Law School. Texas quickly established a makeshift law school for blacks in four basement offices as a pretense at separate-but-equal facilities. However, this facility did not contain adequate libraries, moot courts, faculty, and other educational resources available at the University of Texas. The U.S. Supreme Court ordered Sweatt's admission to the University of Texas in 1950 on the grounds that the black law school did not approximate equality with the university's law school. The McLauren case in Oklahoma dealt with the issue of segregation within schools that had already been desegregated. The Graduate School of Education at the University of Oklahoma had admitted G.W. McLauren but had segregated him from his classmates. He was placed in an anteroom that adjoined the main classroom and was segregated in the dining room. Finally, he was admitted to class but was segregated by a rope barrier. In 1950 the Supreme Court ruled that "substantial equality" was not provided by these arrangements and, therefore, McLauren had to be integrated in all facilities of the university. These four decisions also paved the way for the U.S. Supreme Court's favorable ruling in the 1954 Brown case." [1]

Without a doubt, the vindication of the NAACP's legal attack on the doctrine of "separate-but-equal" was the decision rendered in the 1954 Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas case. Unequivocably, the ultimate attestation to the illegality of "separate-but-equal" has had an unparalleled affect on educational systems and sub-systems within the United States. There is evidence that many previously segregated systems have been desegregated and that children of all races are attending all levels of school with each other. Ironically, as we must note in passing, the "Another Boston" slogan provides dramatic illustration of the degree to which the North, previously believed

by some to be relatively devoid of problems of racial apartheid, is lagging considerably behind the South in desegregation at the elementary and secondary school levels.

However, progress and social change did not occur in the South without conflict and major confrontations, even after the Brown decision. It took a court order to permit Autherine Lucy to enter the University of Alabama in 1956, two years after Brown. Before long she was expelled from the University under extremely suspicious circumstances. And, seven years later, President Kennedy was persuaded to federalize Alabama's National Guard to force Governor Wallace to cease and desist in blocking James Hood and Vivian Malone from entering the University of Alabama. Thus, not until a century after Emancipation was the University of Alabama finally and unequivocably desegregated. Only a year earlier (1962), eight years after Brown did James Meredith enter the University of Mississippi under the protection of a federalized National Guard that had been mobilized to contain the violence which erupted with Meridith's arrival at "Ole Miss." A year earlier than that, 1961, only under a court order did the University of Georgia permit Hamilton Holmes and Charlayne Hunter to enroll. These, then, were pioneer post-Brown decision episodes which established once and for all the responsibility of publicly supported state institutions to permit access without racial discrimination. But, these were limited gains serving only to demonstrate that tokenism magnified the problem of unequal access to graduate and professional schools. That is why the ruling issued on June 12, 1973 in connection with the Adams v. Richardson case has such profound implications for higher education. The Department of Health, Education and Welfare was ordered to discontinue providing funds to institutions that were in violation of the 1964 Civil Rights Act. HEW was also told to enforce compliance from 10 state college systems.[2] These states were: Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi,

North Carolina, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania and Virginia.

The issue of access extends, however, far beyond the boundaries of the "Adams States". It is not confined to the Old South and the "border states" It is national in scope and profound in its consequences. For example, the University of California at Los Angeles did not graduate its first black medical student until 1970. Furthermore, UCLA did not graduate its first quartet of black dentists until 1974. The Medical School of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, the only entirely state supported medical college within the State, never had a black medical student nor a black faculty member until last year. The Medical College graduated its first class of students in 1974 and not one was black, even though blacks constitute about sixteen per cent of the State's population and represent 4.5 per cent of undergraduate enrollment within the State. Further, in the past 100 years, 90 percent of the nation's black physicians and dentists were trained at Meharry Medical College and Howard University School of Medicine.[3] In graduate education, as we shall elaborate below, there is still a pattern of benign quotas of blacks in some graduate schools or a practice of persuading blacks to seek their graduate education at the predominantly black publicly supported institution rather than the predominantly white graduate school in the same state. Very sophisticated strategies which prevent access are prompted by bigotry or conspired with racism to limit black admission and enrollment in graduate and professional schools.

Other techniques are both bold and well orchestrated to destroy the formerly all black state institutions or relegate them to a perpetual state of secondary importance in the state's system of higher education. For example, in 1974 the Justice Department sued the State of Louisiana for perpetuating and expanding a dual network of campuses by locating separate branches of formerly all white and all black schools in the same cities.

Examples of this practice included the Baton Rouge, New Orleans, and Shreveport campuses of Southern and Louisiana State University. Southern University, traditionally all black, was 99 per cent black whereas other traditionally white institutions in the State system of higher education, such as LSU, were from 89 per cent to 97 per cent white. This practice had been perpetuated despite the fact that Louisiana has been technically integrated since 1953.[4]

The issue of access to higher education was raised to a new level of national concern with the advent of the Civil Rights and Black Liberation Movements. In these instances, organizations and individuals cooperated in demanding significant changes that would lead to less racial discrimination in selecting students for graduate and professional studies.

Current Shortages in Manpower and Human Resources

One primary consequence of prolonged inaccessibility of blacks to professional and graduate training is the severe shortage of human resources and manpower in many areas requiring sophisticated training and certification. According to 1973 census data, only 5.8 per cent of all professional and technical workers in the United States are black. They constitute 1.4 per cent of the persons employed as engineers and 6.4 per cent of all persons employed in medical and other health fields.[5]

Table 1. Occupation of the Employed Population: 1973

(Numbers in thousands. Annual averages)

Occupation	Total	Negro	White	Percent Negro of total
Total employed	84,409	8,061	75,278	9.5
White-collar workers	40,386	2,302	37,545	5.7
Professional and technical	11,777	684	10,876	5.8
Engineers	1,094	15	1,053	1.4
Medical and other health	1,939	124	1,754	6.4
Teachers, except college	2,916	253	2,644	8.7
Other professional and technical	5,828	291	5,426	5.0
Managers and administrators, except farm	8,644	280	8,270	3.2
Salaried workers	6,815	202	6,548	3.0
Self-employed	1,829	78	1,722	4.3
Sales workers	5,415	167	5,207	3.1
Retail trade	3,074	123	2,921	4.0
Other industries	2,342	44	2,286	1.9
Clerical workers	14,548	1,171	13,192	8.0
Stenographers, typists, and secretaries	4,206	269	3,880	6.4
Other clerical workers	10,342	902	9,313	8.7
Blue-collar workers	29,869	3,411	26,147	11.4
Craft and kindred workers	11,288	713	10,479	6.3
Carpenters	1,078	49	1,018	4.5
Construction craft workers, except carpenters	2,357	185	2,152	7.8
Mechanics and repairers	2,903	170	2,702	5.9
Metal craft workers	1,159	65	1,086	5.6
Blue-collar supervisors, n.e.c.	1,460	87	1,364	6.0
All other craft workers	2,333	158	2,157	6.8
Operatives, except transport	10,972	1,410	9,425	12.9
Transport equipment operatives	3,297	467	2,814	14.2
Drivers and delivery workers	2,798	370	2,416	13.2
All other	498	98	398	19.7
Nonfarm laborers	4,312	821	3,429	19.0
Construction	854	178	665	20.8
Manufacturing	1,100	230	859	20.9
Other industries	2,358	413	1,905	17.5
Service workers	11,128	2,130	8,814	19.1
Private household	1,353	509	833	37.6
Service workers, except private household	9,775	1,621	7,981	16.6
Cleaning service workers	2,076	577	1,470	27.8
Food service workers	3,402	401	2,907	11.8
Health service workers	1,596	352	1,225	22.1
Personal service workers	1,543	177	1,346	11.5
Protective service workers	1,158	115	1,033	9.9
Farm workers	3,027	219	2,772	7.2
Farmers and farm managers	1,664	51	1,602	3.1
Farm laborers and supervisors	1,363	168	1,170	12.3

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

The severity of the shortage in the professional fields can be briefly illustrated. (For more detailed data, see references in notes)[6] In the field of medicine, only about 2 per cent of the nation's 380,000 physicians are black.[7] Thus, the 7,000 black physicians provided a doctor to the black population

ratio of one to 2,800 in 1973 which climbed, according to Poinsett,[8] to a ratio of one to 3700 in 1974. By contrast, there are five white physicians for every 2,800 persons. Stated differently, "one of every thirty-six American physicians is black."[9] Yet, the black population of the United States approaches 12 percent. Clearly, the most basic form of statistical analysis shows that not only are blacks underrepresented in the medical profession but also a sizeable proportion of the black population is without reasonable medical care. Beverly T. Watkins' claim that a "dental disaster" exists in the United States[10] is especially supported by observations in the black community. Nationally, there is a white dentist to patient ratio of approximately one to 2,500. However, black dentists comprise only about 2.5 per cent of the total of 121,000 dentists in the United States. Hence, it appears that there is only one black dentist for every 12,500 blacks. This situation, coupled with the high cost of health care in general, means that a number of black Americans with severe medical and dental problems go untreated year by year.

In the health care field and allied health professions, the shortages of trained personnel are particularly acute. Some of the current shortages are, of course, a function of past patterns of prejudice and discrimination. Some are a consequence of control by medical and dental schools and their professional organizations over both the demand/supply structure and the cost of health services. Some of the shortage can be accounted for by recruitment, admissions, matriculation, and retention practices. Low financial rewards for some areas of professional training in comparison to high levels of both prestige and financial rewards help to account for manpower disparities in some fields. For example, the shortage of primary care physicians, such as general practitioners (GPs), and of internists and pediatricians, nurses, physical and occupational therapists has almost reached crisis proportions.

With the possible exception of pediatricians and internists - and even they make less money than surgeons - these are among the less well remunerated fields in the health professions. An excessive number of medical students wish to specialize in one of the twenty-two fields of specialization in medicine. The persistence of this trend - despite some evidence that the "new breed of medical students" may be rejecting it - reinforces the stereotype of greed among medical practitioners. However, the need for black health professionals is so enormous that the argument over whether they become general practitioners or specialists seems almost unimportant. It does become a critical issue, however, as the availability of physicians and dentists for the delivery of health care services to urban ghetto blacks and isolated rural/farm black Americans diminishes.

Lucille Tunstall has estimated that critical shortages are predicted in several of the 125 specialized occupations in the health care field by 1980 unless greater access to training is provided and if people are not trained to meet anticipated urgent needs.[11] She estimates that by 1980 this nation will have approximately 422,000 unfilled positions in allied health, ranging from the 130,000 specialists in pharmacy and pharmaceuticals to about 117,000 dieticians. Yet, black students enrolled in the predominantly white colleges of pharmacy comprise less than one per cent of all pharmacy students in the U.S. Proportionately, the majority of black pharmacy students are being trained at Xavier University (New Orleans) and Texas Southern University. The shortages are further illustrated by the fact that only eight black persons in the United States are nationally certified as pharmacologists and toxicologists. Black registered nurses comprise seven per cent of all registered nurses but they are over represented in the practical nurses category - 15 per cent of the total - and as nurses aides (50 per cent of the total). In brief, blacks constitute about two percent of the total number of allied health professionals. Supply may very well be, as Larry Leslie and James

Morrison asserted, "the most pressing social need."[12] Undoubtedly, it is here, as also perhaps in social welfare, that shortages reveal the problem of "insufficient resources for expanding professional schools," in addition to explanations cited above.

According to Malcolm G. Scully and the Department of Labor, other severe shortages are either with us now or will become more acute in the forseeable future in a number of additional professions.[13] They claim that about 15.3 million people with B.A.s or higher degrees will be actively seeking jobs between 1972 and 1985. This number includes 11.2 million new B.A.s, 1.2 million new M.A.s and 770,000 new doctorates or recipients of first professional degrees. However, only 14.5 million jobs which require college degrees will be available even after accounting for the 7.7 million new positions that will be created and the 6.8 million that will become available due to death or retirements. Nevertheless, the projected job situation is not uniform; it varies significantly from field to field. Therefore, these projections not only reveal the present locus of projected and present shortages but inform us of the areas to which the training of graduate and professionals must be directed. It is projected that the major needs will continue to be in the medical and health care fields, accounting and engineering. It is estimated that 41,900 accounting positions will be open annually through 1985. However, the nation is producing only 28,500 per year, including 1,158 persons trained at the M.A. or doctorate levels. Blacks are particularly under-represented in the fields of accounting, marketing, finance and general business administration. This study also indicates that 73,500 engineering positions will become available annually through 1985 but the nation is producing only 70,000 engineers at the B.A., M.S. and D.Sc. or Ph.D. levels per year. About 500 of them are black. In fact, only about two per cent of all engineers in the United States are black. Most of them are trained at the six black colleges with engineering

schools, particularly Prairie View (Texas) A. & M. College. Even as recent as 1973, only 8.6 per cent of black doctorate recipients were in Engineering, Mathematics and Physical Sciences combined (see Table 2).

Table 2

Percentage Distribution of Racial/Ethnic Groups by Field, by Citizenship Categories among 1973 Doctorate Recipients

Racial/Ethnic Group	Engin, Math & Phys Sci	Life Sciences	Psych-ology	Social Sciences	Humanities & Arts	Professions	Education	TOTAL ALL FIELDS
			U.S. Citizens					
White	22.8	14.1	8.3	10.0	17.7	4.3	22.8	100.0
Black	8.6	9.0	3.9	6.5	9.4	3.1	59.5	100.0
Oriental	42.1	24.3	5.7	10.5	8.1	3.2	6.1	100.0
Latin	14.8	15.9	9.1	8.5	26.7	.6	24.4	100.0
American Indian	15.8	14.9	8.8	10.5	18.4	.9	30.7	100.0
TOTAL	22.1	14.2	8.2	9.8	17.1	4.3	24.2	100.0
			Non-U.S. Citizens with Immigrant Visas					
White	35.1	16.1	4.8	10.5	23.1	2.7	7.5	100.0
Black	7.3	26.8	0.0	12.2	24.4	4.9	22.0	100.0
Oriental	62.0	21.1	1.2	7.2	3.5	2.1	3.0	100.0
Latin	29.4	5.9	0.0	0.0	47.1	5.9	11.8	100.0
TOTAL	49.1	18.7	2.5	9.6	11.5	3.2	5.3	100.0
			Non-U.S. Citizens with Other Types of Visas					
White	36.3	17.6	3.9	15.1	10.8	6.6	9.4	100.0
Black	16.2	30.5	1.0	20.8	9.5	3.8	19.0	100.0
Oriental	52.5	20.9	1.0	10.8	5.3	1.5	7.9	100.0
Latin	41.3	42.0	0.0	4.8	3.2	3.2	4.8	100.0
TOTAL	41.4	20.5	2.5	14.1	7.8	4.7	9.1	100.0

Source: Commission on Human Resources, Minority Groups Among United States Doctorate Level Scientists, Engineers, and Scholars, 1973.

Although approximately 10,500 blacks are classified as social workers in the United States, Leslie and Morrison, among others,[14] point to the shortage of social workers as one of our nation's pressing manpower needs.

Although 48,600 Ph.D.s are produced each year, which is about 600 more than the nation needs at the present time,[15] the United States still has a critical shortage of black holders of the doctorate degree. We know that black Ph.D.s constitute about 4 per cent of all sociologists holding the doctorate, 5 per cent of psychologists with Ph.D.s, and 2 per cent of the economists but only one per cent of the historians, physicists, biologists and chemists.[16] In fact, only "one of every 420 American Ph.D.s is black."[17] This situation of extreme underrepresentation of blacks among holders of the doctorate degree obtains despite increasing efforts to produce more black Ph.D.s. Between 1930 and 1972, of the 244,829 doctorates produced in the United States, only 1,860 of them were black. However, 14,663 or 6.0 per cent of the total, were classified as minorities. It should be stressed that 10,987 of them were Orientals, including a substantial number of non-U.S. citizens included in that group. (See Table 3)

Table 3

Racial/Ethnic Groups Identified in the Comprehensive Roster of Doctoral Scientists and Engineers, by Fiscal Year of Doctorate

Period of PhD Graduation	U. S. Total	All Minorities N	%	Racial/Ethnic Group				
				Black	Oriental	Latin	American Indian	Other
1930-34	5,750	89	1.7	18	59	12	0	0
1935-39	7,335	110	1.5	39	49	22	0	0
1940-44	8,768	189	2.2	51	100	36	0	2
1945-49	9,889	441	4.5	118	234	73	0	16
1950-54	25,482	886	3.5	156	612	95	12	11
1955-59	27,909	1,265	4.5	270	829	111	18	32
1960-64	39,423	2,582	6.5	257	2,007	253	21	44
1965-69	66,795	5,365	8.0	508	4,275	431	30	121
1970-72	53,478	3,736	7.0	443	2,822	374	25	72
TOTAL	244,829	14,663	6.0	1,860	10,987	1,412	106	298

Source: Commission on Human Resources, Minority Groups Among United States Doctorate Level Scientists, Engineers, and Scholars, 1973.

The 976 blacks who received doctorates in 1973, out of a total of 33,727 awarded that year, included 760 black American citizens, 56 Non-U.S. citizen immigrant visa holders and 160 Non-U.S. citizens, other visa holders. (See Table 4)

Table 4

Number Receiving PhD's in 1973, by Citizenship and Racial/Ethnic Identification (Data Corrected for Partial Response)*

Citizenship	White Caucasian	(1) Black	(2) Oriental	(3) Latin	American Indian (4)	All Other	Minority Total	GRAND TOTAL
U.S. Citizens	26,400	760	320	228	148	12	1,468	27,868
Non-U.S. Cit. Immigr. Visa	826	56	1,067	23	0	12	1,158	1,984
Non-U.S. Cit. Other Visas	1,817	160	1,042	96	1	46	1,345	3,162
TOTAL KNOWN	29,043	976	2,429	347	149	70	3,971	33,014
Citizenship & Ethnicity unknown	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	713
TOTAL	29,043	976	2,429	347	149	70	3,971	33,727

(1) Includes 12 individuals who indicate White, Indian, or other mixtures.
(2) Includes South Asians, to the extent these people so identified themselves.
(3) Includes Puerto Ricans, Spanish-Americans and Mexican-Americans.
(4) Includes 19% who checked only this category; 81% checked American Indian and White.

Source: Commission on Human Resources, Minority Groups Among United States Doctorate-Level Scientists, Engineers, and Scholars, 1973.

The manpower shortage among blacks in certain areas of specialization such as landscape architecture, business specialties, engineering, life sciences, social sciences and the professions, is not alleviated by the continued proclivity of blacks to seek advanced degrees in "Education." As shown in Table 2, almost three-fifths (59.9 per cent) of all doctorates received by blacks in 1973 were in EDUCATION. (See Table 2)

The indisputable fact is that, for whatever reason, an insufficient number of blacks are pursuing advanced degrees in fields other than education. Even though the national supply exceeds demand in such fields as psychology, chemistry, food sciences, geology, life sciences, history, law, meterology,

oceanography, physics and political science, the supply of black doctorates in these fields is dismal. With the increasing implementation of affirmative action policies and guidelines and with a greater inclination of institutions of higher education and private firms to hire professionally trained blacks, the urgency of increasing the number of trained blacks in all of the areas mentioned above, with less emphasis on the education field, is all the more compelling. Consequently, the "available pool among trained black professionals issue" looms larger and larger as affirmative action programs come under heavier attack from opponents to equal education and employment opportunity.

Finally, it should be noted that the 3,845 black lawyers in America comprise only about 1.5 per cent of the total number of 325,000 lawyers in the United States. The issue here is not exclusively one of a shortage of lawyers since so many blacks still seek out white lawyers for legal counsel when in trouble. It is also a need for diversity in the training of black lawyers. This fact underscores a necessity to move away from cases involving divorce, negligence and crime as the primary foci of black lawyers, and to expand into such specializations as corporation, constitutional and civil rights law.

Increasing the Number of Blacks in Graduate and Professional Schools

Especially since the cataclysmic days of the Civil Rights and Black Liberation Movements of the sixties and early seventies, special efforts were made by a variety of institutions, organizations and individuals to increase the number of blacks in graduate and professional schools. These efforts were viewed as one imperative for dealing with the apparent and real shortages of blacks in certain areas. They were also one response to the increasing demands among both conservative and militant blacks in various segments of the black community.

Recruitment: From the beginning, recruitment was cited as a basic element in the process of increasing the availability of professionally trained

black Americans. Among the several common complaints persisted among colleges and universities regarding the recruitment of blacks were: (1) lack of knowledge about the process as applied to blacks, (2) lack of financial and personnel resources for the special recruitment of black students, (3) difficulties in locating competent black students, (4) quotas of blacks in graduate departments and professional schools, (5) the degree to which blacks would feel either isolated or integrated in predominantly white institutions, (6) the social and psychological impact of possible racial isolation on the performance of black students in predominantly white institutions, (7) the possible negative responses from white professors and white students to a black critical mass in predominantly white institutions, and (8) the ability of blacks to compete in the rigorous graduate and professional programs in view of poor and disadvantaged backgrounds, presumed to be universal among all black students.

Positive reactions and programmatic responses to complaints, doubts and naysayers, required no less than total commitment and a vigorous commitment to recruit and matriculate black students.[18] The Counsel of Legal Education Opportunity was established to recruit more minorities into the legal profession. The Education Testing Service established the Minority Graduate Student Locater Service in 1972-73 to help "seek out potential students from minority groups." This service is provided to second semester juniors, seniors and college graduates who wish to complete a special 17 item questionnaire which produces information needed by graduate and professional schools prior to admission. The locater service does not include results of Graduate Record Examination (GRE) in its request; it is not necessary for an applicant to take the GRE as a prerequisite for participating in the locater service.

Another program established for the recruitment of promising black students into the medical field is Project 75. This program, established

in 1970 through the joint efforts of the National Medical Association, the American Medical Association, the Association of America Medical Colleges, and with an Equal Opportunity Grant, was devised with the goal of raising the proportion of black physicians in the country to twelve per cent of the total by 1975. Counseling and tutorial centers were established in various parts of the nation to assist prospective medical school applicants to increase their academic skills and to understand their own commitment to the medical and health care professions.[19] It was soon evident that the services provided through Project 75 should have been provided, in many instances, in elementary and secondary schools in order to eliminate some of the problems and emotional blocks to science that some students have. It is also clear that the goal of twelve per cent black physicians will not be reached by the end of 1975. Nevertheless, the program is a significant step in the right direction of a sound recruitment program.

The Carnegie Corporation of New York awarded a grant of $232,600 to the University of Tennessee at Knoxville to develop a program for enlarging the pool of professional trained black biomedical scientists. The program begins with a commitment to recruit more blacks into this field. The process involves identification of potential participants from among rising college seniors. They are given a ten week summer program at the Oak Ridge Graduate School in which they work on specific projects with third year doctorate students. The first summer program is followed by continued counseling throughout the senior year. After college graduation, participants spend another summer at Oak Ridge and are then admitted to program for graduate studies in biomedical science. Thirty-two students were admitted to the program during its first year of operation.[20]

In 1969, the Association of American Medical Colleges (AAMC) passed a resolution which demonstrated a strong commitment to recruit more blacks and other minorities into the health professions. In conjunction with the

National Education Association, the American Medical Association, in the same year, took a similar position as embodied in the following resolution:

> "That those involved in health manpower planning, wherever possible, establish programs that encourage an individual in one health category to advance to another if he/she is so motivated, and that built-in incentives be incorporated as rapidly as possible, in health care educational programs so that individuals will be encouraged to start in one health category with the hope and expectation of being able to continue to advance themselves as circumstances permit." 21

The Joint AMA-NEA Committee on Health Problems in Education also endorsed the use of equivalency tests and proficiency examinations in order to provide a more systematic method of evaluating previous education and experience. In this manner, blacks and other minorities, as well as non-minorities, who had served as medics or as allied health workers while in military service could have an opportunity to receive some form of credit for their work, and, thereby, be more encouraged to enter the health professions.[22]

The AAMC, however, obtained its first major grant in 1969 from the U.S. Office of Economic Opportunity for the expressed purpose of increasing "educational opportunities for minorities in the health professions." As a result of this and subsequent grants, the AAMC was able to establish the Office of Minority Affairs which is an important link in the recruitment process. It was also able to fund highly valuable projects such as the Medical Minority Applicant Registry and the publication of "Minority Student Opportunities in U.S. Medical Schools."[23] (The efforts to locate other sources of financial support and the establishment of financial aid programs will be more fully discussed in the next section.)

The recruitment of black students for graduate and professional training, as previously indicated, involves a high degree of commitment. Moreover, a tremendous investment in manpower, personnel and financial support is necessary in order to implement and maintain an effective recruitment program.

These demands are imperative especially since effective recruitment for graduate and professional education does not merely begin with enrollment of blacks and other minorities in bacculaureate programs. In many instances, as evidenced by such programs as Project 75 and others, recruitment begins at minimum in secondary schools and sometimes in elementary schools. Here, promising black students can be identified, given continued academic counseling, psychological support and encouragement and provided with role models who serve as prototypes of what can be accomplished even under the most difficult circumstances. Initiating early programs that promote high educational attainment and career specialization often necessitates community participation and involvement. Community based programs may include science centers, tutorial and counseling centers, and skill bank facilities. All of these activities are designed to encourage minorities to both accept educational opportunities suggested by community based programs and to seek out other opportunities for collegiate, graduate and professional training. Such programs are bound to be costly. They are often risky; nonetheless, one must be prepared for high risk ventures if one is serious about the recruitment of students who, in general, have the odds stacked against them. Building motivation is not an easy task when for many persons "deferring gratifications" is not a part of their ingrained value system or for those for whom surviving in a hostile environment is a major preoccupation. Many black students enrolled in pre-professional programs require considerable financial aid. (See discussion in next section on financial aid.) Hence, financial support is vitally necessary merely to keep such students enrolled in programs. This is, of course, an essential element in the recruitment process. While it is certainly apparent that many black students from all social and economic classes are highly motivated for higher education, it is equally true that, despite initial motivation, many black students are significantly influenced by their peers who are not oriented toward collegiate and/or professional

training. The recruiter, who embarks on a program in elementary and secondary school years, must be constantly apprised of those peer pressures against promising students that may force them to disavow serious academic studies. Similarly, those recruiters operating at the college level must occasionally confront a value system that glorifies "just getting by" or making a "passing grade of C" rather than being noted for "academic excellence." In essence, then, recruitment necessitates the participation of a staff that is constitutionally constructed and perceptive and sensitive enough to deal with the myriad problems that may serve as impediments to matriculation in graduate and professional programs.

Admissions: Policies, Practices and Results

The recruitment of blacks for graduate and professional schools does not necessarily assure admission to them. In the past, and in recent years, several factors have conspired to keep black students out of graduate and professional schools. For example, Sorenson points out that in 1948, twenty-six medical schools would not admit blacks.[24] Similar exclusionary policies persisted in the late sixties in the North as well as in Southern and border states, not only for medical schools but for other professional schools as well. Aside from personal and institutional racism, and under-recruitment of competent and promising black students, other impediments against the admission of significant proportions of black students for graduate and professional schools have consisted of the uses and abuses of the so-called "traditional criteria for admissions."[25]

Among the traditional criteria for admissions are: (1) College Grade Point Average (GPA), (2) Test Scores from such examinations as the Graduate Record Examination (GRE), Medical College Aptitude Test (MCAT), or the Law School Admissions Test (LSAT), (3) Undergraduate University Attended, and (4) References. In addition to those standard criteria, the first three of which are subject to quantification and ranking, other criteria

considered are collegiate extra-collegiate activities, and the need for certain specialized skills within a given state. Except in some few fields of study, and as particularly noted in reference letters, intangible factors as motivation and commitment to graduate and professional studies are not generally paramount in consideration of the applicant. Because of rigid adherence to the more formalized criteria, a significant number of black students have encountered serious obstacles for admission/matriculation at the formerly all-white graduate and professional schools. They may very well have a high grade point average but then they may do poorly on the qualifying test. If they do well on both the test and have a high grade point average, they may not be admitted because the quality of their undergraduate school is suspect or if they are admitted under these circumstances, they may be regarded as the "exception" and exaggerated expectations of their performance may result. In other instances, even armed with good test scores, grade point averages and a good undergraduate school, their letters of reference may come from persons not known to the evaluator. Thus, his/her bias enters into the overall assessment of the applicant's qualifications for admission.

In recent years, traditional criteria have come under increasing attack for their inability to predict performance at all levels of graduate and professional training, success after graduation, and because they are used to prevent blacks and other minorities from gaining admissions. Certainly, grades, test performance and the subjective rating of a person's undergraduate school may easily be employed as major factors in both selection and in "screening out" potentially successful students before they are granted an opportunity to prove themselves. Grades as a major factor in selection are suspect for any number of reasons. Many medical, dental and law school admission officers report that successful matriculants have grade point averages of 3.5 or above on a 4.0 system. Simultaneously, there are those

who argue that it is becoming increasingly easier to become "an honor student" in college because of the relaxation of standards by those professors who feel that the assignment of grades is both discriminatory and elitist in practice. If this practice is widespread and if grade point averages become higher, is it reasonable to assume that soon, all successful applicants will show a cumulative grade point average of 3.8 or 4.0 on a 4.0 system? Where will the cut-off point be in the future? Is it possible that a rigid adherence to grades eliminates a sizeable number of talented candidates for admission if cumulative GPA's are slightly below the magical cut-off point? While it is true that grades permit flexibility according to the space available for new students, Bigelow[26] has pointed to the capriciousness of this practice if more logical standards based on a sound academic rationale are not employed. Musselman[27] is correct in his assertion that "the transcript does not tell enough" for there are intangible factors to be considered in the admissions process not entirely revealed by the academic transcript. The transcripts do not tell us anything about non-intellectual factors that may be crucial to success or failure. Neither does it reveal anything about affective or personality factors, motivation for a career and capacity to endure the stresses and strains of graduate and professional training. Our argument here is not for the total elimination of grades as a criterion for admissions; rather it is for the utilization of grades more judiciously in conjunction with other non-intellectual factors that are essential elements in the potential for success syndrome. But, what about the use of non-traditional grades that became so popular during the student revolution of the sixties? Non-traditional grades are highly suspect among many graduate faculty and admissions officers. In a major study of the effects of non-traditional grades on admission and financial aid, the findings by James Schoemer and associates are quite revealing. They found that: (1) having less than 10 per cent of P/F or non-

traditional grades had little negative effects on admission to graduate school or for fellowships; (2) chances for admission and for financial support are jeopardized when students record ten per cent or more of non-traditional grades, (3) "With 26 to 50 per cent non-traditional grades," potential graduate students would be in serious trouble in their efforts to be admitted and to receive financial aid, (4) when the proportion of such grades exceeds fifty per cent of the total, there is little possibility of either being admitted to graduate study or for receiving financial assistance; (5) most graduate deans have negative feelings about the practice of non-traditional grading and many of them would prefer to eliminate such practices.[28]

Undoubtedly, there is considerable merit in the position espoused in a recent Newman Report. According to this Report,

> "... the main criteria for admission should include demonstrated motivation: a goal oriented aspiration to graduate study evidenced by willingness to take initiative and set standards for oneself and by independent accomplishment in non-classroom as well as classroom activities... Criteria that reward initiative, motivation, and non-classroom accomplishments will give talented minority students a far better chance... than those based on grades and tests alone." 29

Obviously, this position raises serious questions about the elitist stance that graduate and professional schools should be open exclusively to the brightest and ablest students and that faculty members are not in the business of social reform and educational engineering. That viewpoint, which is reinforced by rigid adherence to traditional admission criteria, frees its proponents from confronting the problems and issues often implicit in the utilization of non-traditional criteria for admissions. Such individuals rationalize their philosophy on the grounds of the necessity to uphold high academic standards. Implicit in their argument is the admission of students through non-traditional methods by definition lowers academic standards and, eventually, erodes the prestige and quality of the department or institution. Some proponents of this view go so far as to accept the prejudiced and

stereotyped notion of the inferiority of black students to all others and that if blacks have entered graduate or professional schools they must have done so through some form of special admissions. Therefore, they are by definition encumbered with a special responsibility of "proving themselves" worthy of being admitted to the department or institution. This position does not take into consideration that many black students have in the past, and even in the present time, received excellent training wherever they matriculated as undergraduates or that some black students, both in regular and in special admissions, have been required to prove themselves more equal than equal in order to be considered "equal" to the average white student.

It is often extremely difficult for naysayers of the sort described above to accept the fact that the criteria employed for admission are problematic in terms of their precision and validity for predicting academic success in graduate degree programs. Little do they realize that relatively few graduate institutions ever conduct validity tests of admission criteria or even test criteria for determining future academic success.[30] They have to be reminded that faculty members usually are informed only about their own schools or the better known colleges and universitites. There is, then, a built-in subjective bias among faculty of wanting to reproduce themselves in the graduate and professional school students they admit. Therein lies another explanation for their resistance to any criteria that are outside the boundaries of their own familiarity.

Despite objections from many faculty members and with the encouragement of others, admissions criteria are being adjusted in order to facilitate the admission of a larger number of blacks and other minorities to graduate and professional schools. It should be stressed that many non-minority students are also benefitting by such adjustments and that, consequently, their chances of being admitted are also improving. In other words, adjustments of admissions

requirements are not exclusively for blacks and other minorities. Modified admissions standards take into consideration such factors as test bias, experience in taking tests, and non-intellectual and personality or affective factors which may be associated with academic and career success. The legal basis of modified admission standards or "preferential admissions" appears to reside in the assurance that the modifications will not restrict "enrollment opportunities for non-minority students."[31] Consequently, and as a result of accelerated drives to recruit black students who meet regular admission requirements, the actual number of blacks being admitted to graduate and professional schools is increasing. However, closing the percentage gaps between the number of blacks in graduate and professional schools and the proportion of blacks in those age cohorts that could be in such programs, and in relation to the proportions of whites admitted and enrolled in graduate and professional schools, remains a major problem. This problem is, of course, a national problem and it is of special importance in those states immediately affected by the Adams v. Richardson case.

In recent years, a number of relatively unique programs were initiated to come to terms with admission problems. Some of these programs have been referred to be E.P. Caruthers as "side door entrance" strategies.[32] The University of Miami School of Medicine, for example, designed a program for advanced admission to medical school for holders of the Ph.D. degree. This program permits such individuals to receive the M.D. degree after 18 to 24 months of medical training. Very few blacks have participated in this innovative program although some black medical students have completed both a Ph.D. and an M.D. within the same four year period.

"Side door entrance" practices include the following: (1) After being rejected from a professional college, some persons enroll in a related or graduate professional program, and then apply for advance placement admission;

(2) When one does not meet residency quota requirements, some individuals apply for a driver's license, register to vote or use their undergraduate address as their permanent address in order to establish residency and, thus gain admission; (3) Others, who are unable to enter American schools, enroll in foreign medical schools, for example, with the hope of transferring to an American professional school. This approach is supported by the CONTRANS program of the Association of Medical Colleges (however, we do not know how many blacks and other minorities have enrolled in such programs); and (4) Some individuals use the advantage accrued from parents or relatives who are major donors to the institution or who are alumni of the institution to which the person has applied.[33]

Financial Assistance: Fellowships, Scholarships and Loans

As suggested earlier on, financial assistance has often been tied to traditional criteria for admissions such as cumulative grade point average and/or class standing. Bigelow calls attention to the recent Newman Report's position that "no longer should the award of graduate fellowships at the federal level be dominated by traditional academic performance." This report argues that the most salient factor is what contribution the individual is likely to make to society following graduation rather than performance during an academic career.[34] In essence, a number of individuals and organizations are registering serious reservations about the use of such traditional variables as academic performance as the major criterion for financial assistance or rewards.

This situation has tended to escalate the controversy over divergent philosophies regarding who should be recipients of financial assistance and whether or not this assistance whould be based upon "need" or "merit." There are those, such as Richard Dremuk, who claim that "the need for high grades in order to win coveted awards' - fellowships - is over-emphasized and large

percentages of students cite competition as a reason for dropping out of graduate school."[35] The defenders of the "merit" philosophy seem to prevail largely in graduate schools where merit is defined in terms of academic excellence and promise.

> "However, changes in philosophy are becoming apparent with the end of federal support and the tightening of budgets on campuses. The particular trends that indicate that graduate schools are moving closer to a need concept are: less automatic renewal of awards each year, the increased use of packaging support between gift and loan, and an insistence on greater self-support, especially for basic maintenance."[36]

The need concept has been applied in conjunction with merit by professional schools, particularly medicine and law. These institutions have been largely guided for quite some time by the principle of parental responsibility and that students have a responsibility to meet their needs through loans or some form of self-help. Yet, professional schools have also been reluctant to deny admissions purely because of financial circumstances. Especially with the programs to increase the number of minority students, have medical, dental and law schools become even more sensitive to their own responsibility to assist these students with their financial problems. Many of them are members of the Graduate and Professional School Financial Aid Service (GAPSAS) which is a central processing system. It collects and disseminates financial data to assist administrators in the allocation of student aid funds.[37] In addition, many professional schools have their own student aid programs such as the Law School Financial Aid Service and the various Medical School Financial Aid Programs.

The importance of financial aid for black graduate and professional school applicants is underscored by the major findings of the cooperative study by the Student National Medical Association and the Association of American Medical Colleges as reported by Davis G. Johnson and associates.

They reported that:

> "...compared with white students, all minority groups have a much greater percentage of students with parental income below $10,000. Of the 1972 entrants, 62 per cent of the black American... matriculants reported parental income below this figure. Only 20 per cent of the white matriculants were from families with income this low. ... one of every three white medical students admitted in 1972 came from families with combined parental incomes over $20,000, while only one in 13 black students reported family income at this level."38

Obviously, the more money one has the greater the number of applications one is able to submit and the more likely admission is to a professional or graduate school. Applications are quite costly; thus, AMCAS and some medical schools have implemented a policy which permits the waiver of application fees for low-income students.

Minority graduate and professional school applicants have also been financially assisted by such organizations and programs as (1) the John Hay Whitney Foundation (New York); (2) The Martin Luther King Jr. Fellowship Program for Negro Veterans in graduate and professional education (Princeton); (3) the National Medical Fellowships (Downers Grove, Illinois); (4) American Fund for Dental Education (Chicago); (5) Ford Foundation Doctoral Fellowship (New York); (6) Southern Fellowship Fund (Atlanta); (7) United Scholarship Service (Denver); (8) The National Urban League Social Work Fellowships (New York); (9) Council of Legal Education Opportunities (Atlanta); (10) Management Education (Columbia University Graduate School of Business); and (11) The Minority Fellowship Program of the American Sociological Society (Washington, D.C.).

The Minority Fellowship Program in Sociology was established at the insistence of the Caucus of Black Sociologists in 1972. Through its efforts and that of the Executive Specialist for Minority Affairs, an office also established at the insistence of the Caucus of Black Sociologists, a multi-million dollar grant was obtained first from the NIMH and augmented by sub-

sequent: funds from the National Institute of Education in 1974. As a result, some forty doctoral minority students have received significant stipends ranging up to $7,500 annually, for the support of their Ph.D. program in Sociology. This program is now in its second year of operation and it is expected to be a major factor in the production of an increasing number of minority group sociologists by 1980.

Despite these efforts, problems remain in the area of financial assistance for both minority and non-minority students. It can be argued that the structure of financial aid programs benefits the low income without having to be concerned for the wealthy who can support themselves and with a disregard for the middle class who must support themselves. In general, middle-class students come from homes whose parental income is just above the amount that would qualify them for all but various forms of loans. They, like their soul brothers and sisters of the low-income groups, are extremely reluctant to assume additional burdens of debt after completing a debt-ridden bacculaureate program. Moreover, some of them come from families in which two or more dependents are in college and/or professional schools at the same time. It is their argument that the criterion of parental income and abuses of information on the Parents' Confidential Statement, without an examination of other related factors such as parental responsibility, cheat them of much needed financial assistance - Fellowships and Scholarships. These arguments raise the important and as yet unresolved question of how to define both need and merit. Also, when does merit supercede need as an encouragement to achieve academic excellence for admission to graduate and professional schools?

Centralization in Admissions Programs

As a result of the tremendous increase in the number of applications to professional schools, particularly medicine, dentistry and law, and because of the overlap in applications, centralized admission application services have

been established. Billy Rankin maintains that "centralization is in order when there is a large degree of overlap of applicants applying to a given set of schools."[39] He also claims that "the greater the overlap, the greater the redundant activity which can be eliminated via centralization."[40] The estimated overlap for dental school applications is from 90 to 95 per cent while that of medical colleges is between 70 and 80 per cent each year.

Centralization is used for routine clerical and computational tasks. By this process, optically read documents can be used as a data entry technique and as "turn-around documents" for colleges to up-date their admissions actions. This information can be more easily distributed to advisers, counselors and others involved in the admissions process, as well as those seeking information about the applicant pool and the admissions data base. Centralized admissions techniques are presently utilized by the American Association of Dental Schools Application Service (AADSAS), the American Colleges Application Service (AMCAS) and similar services are performed by the Law School Admissions Council (LSAC) and the Law School Data Assembly Service (LSDAS).

The process involved in the service programs may be illustrated by the AADSAS:

"1. AADSAS sends application material consisting of instruction booklet, school information booklet, application booklet and code list.

2. Applicant returns completed application booklet to AADSAS with copies of all transcripts and check or money order for AADSAS processing fees.

3. AADSAS electronically processes application, computes grade point averages, and transmits application and transcripts to schools selected by applicant.

4. AADSAS sends confirmation copy of application to applicant for verification.

5. AADSAS contacts applicant at a later date to request information on course work completed since original application.

6. Applicant sends information on recently completed course work to AADSAS.

7. AADSAS sends report to requesting schools containing applicant's updated grade point averages, and names and grades of courses completed since original application.

8. Schools contact applicant directly regarding scheduling of any necessary interviews, and ultimate decisions."[41]

The process is essentially the same for all centralization services. Fees, however, depend upon the number of schools to which the applicant wishes to apply. For example, the AMCAS charges a fee of $10 for sending application data to one school; two schools - $15; three schools - $20; four schools - $25; five schools - $30. A ten dollar fee per school is assessed for each additional school applied to, and for each school applied to at a later date.[42] The proof of the effectiveness of such programs lies in the fact that such a large proportion of professional schools of law (143 out of 155 law schools), dentistry (44 of the 58 dental schools), and medicine (75 of the 115 colleges of medicine) were participating during the last reporting year.[43] Once again, the more money one has the greater the number of schools to which he/she can apply. Similarly, the waiving of application fees for minority students will enhance their opportunities for multiple application as well as increase their chances for admission to a professional school. Waivers of application fees, however, are not automatic for minority students. Waivers for medical school application are determined on an individual basis by the participating institution. In the same manner, individual need is the determining factor in the waiving of fees for the AMCAS.

The Medical Minority Applicant Registry

As stated earlier on, the Association of American Medical Colleges has received a number of grants to supplement and support its programs for minority students. One activity previously mentioned is the Medical Minority Applicant Registry (Med-Mar). This program permits minority group medical school applicants to have basic biographical data circulated without cost to him/her to the admissions offices of all American medical colleges and other requesting

health service organizations. Participation in the program is voluntary after a request for minority identification has been made by Med-Mar on a questionnaire it distributes. Med-Mar lists are published twice per year; once in July and once in November. They are circulated to all medical colleges in the U.S.; thereafter, interested medical colleges may either contact the applicant directly or request additional information from Med-Mar. Activities of this type, along with vigorous recruitment efforts, have begun to result in substantial increases in the number of blacks enrolled in first year classes of professional schools.[44]

Enrollment Trends and Patterns

Many persons successful in the admissions process never actually enroll in a college, graduate or professional school. This fact is a vexing problem for many admissions officers and academic departments. Space considerations preclude our examination of such problems; however, suffice it to say that the most important immediate outcome of the admissions process is the fact of enrollment. Enrollment data may reveal significant dimensions about the success of the recruitment and admissions processes as well as provide empirical data on the success of any commitment or impediment to altering past patterns of exclusion and discrimination.

Graduate Schools

During the past fifteen years, major attention has been given to enrolling more blacks and other minorities in graduate and professional schools. Our discussion of current shortages revealed a number of explanations for this phenomenon. As a consequence of this determination, the number of black persons who earned doctorate level degrees in 1973 (including Ph.D., Ed.D., D.Sc.) represent about one-half of all black doctorate holders in the 1973 labor force. That is a most telling statistic for it reveals the extent to which past practices of exclusion, discrimination and dissuasion prevented blacks from earning the doctorate. It also shows that the number of blacks with

doctorates is minuscule in comparison with the total number of holders of that degree in the United States.

Hence, we may raise the following questions: How many blacks are presently enrolled in graduate degree programs? What changes have occurred in graduate enrollment in recent years? In what fields of specialization are black graduate students enrolled? What variations are apparent from state to state, and especially in the Adams states? One major fact should be kept in mind: the drive to recruit more black graduate students is occurring just at the same time that we are expecting a twelve to seventeen per cent drop in graduate fellowships, primarily because of shrinking federal trainee funds, and a two percent drop in assistantships. (As one might surmise, in general, the larger and the more prestigious universities are not as severely affected by shrinking federal funds to support fellowships, scholarships and assistantships. Thus, they are in a better position to enroll and provide financial assistance than are the smaller institutions. The picture on this matter is, however, murky primarily because high prestige institutions, with the ACE ranking of "distinguished" departments, are not recruiting minority students with the same degree of vigor as are institutions whose departments are ranked "good" or "adequate" by the American Council on Education. Furthermore, we must be primarily concerned about access to public colleges and universities and private institutions receiving substantial federal funds.)

In the Fall of 1970, black students comprised about 4.2 per cent of the total number of graduate students enrolled in graduate schools in the United States. That compares to 5.2 black graduate student enrollment using Fall 1972 data.[45]

The Adams States and Graduate Schools

Table 5
Enrollment of Black Graduate Students in Adams States by Number and Per Cent of Total, 1970, 1972

STATE	1970 Total Number of Black Students	Per Cent	Total Enrolled	Total Black	1972 Per Cent	Total Enrolled
Arkansas	72	3.1	2,516	80	3.3	2,354
Florida	202	3.3	6,084	450	5.7	7,789
Georgia	1,169	12.3	9,443	1,457	13.9	10,467
Louisiana	256	5.0	5,856	478	8.4	5,629
Maryland	388	6.0	6,418	764	5.0	15,236
Mississippi	419	15.5	2,730	325	12.6	2,569
North Carolina	284	3.4	8,454	987	10.0	9,729
Oklahoma	169	2.9	5,765	285	3.6	7,813
Pennsylvania	743	4.1	18,021	821	4.7	17,813
Virginia	273	5.5	4,967	305	5.2	5,906
Total	4,175	5.9	70,254	5,952	7.0	84,277

Sources: Racial and Ethnic Enrollment Data From Institutions of Higher Education Fall, 1970, DHEW, Office of Civil Rights.

Racial and Ethnic Enrollment Data From Institutions of Higher Education Fall, 1972, DHEW, Office of Civil Rights.

Table 5 shows the number and proportion of black students enrolled in all graduate schools in the "Adams States," as well as changes in enrollment between 1970 and 1972. In 1970, some 70,254 graduate students were enrolled in all ten Adams states. Of that number, 4,175 were black or 5.9 per cent of the total. In 1972, the total graduate school enrollment was 84,277, and of that number, 5,952 were black graduate students or 7.0 per cent of the total.

Even if we account for reporting error, the statistics demonstrate

little significant changes. In Arkansas, the net gain of black students in the graduate schools between the two reporting years was eight. Only about 25 of those students are enrolled on the main campus of the University of Arkansas. Forty-two of Arkansas' black graduate students are enrolled at Arkansas State. In 1972, only 17 blacks were enrolled on the main campus of the University.

The number of black graduate students more than doubled in Florida between 1970 and 1972. However, our further examination of the 1970 data showed that there were as many black students at Florida A.&M. University, the traditionally all-black university (63) as there were at the University of Florida (62) in 1970. By 1972, however, the number of black graduate students at the University of Florida had reached 117 and the number at Florida State University climbed to149 while FAMU experienced a net loss of ten black graduate students.

In Georgia, the proportion of black graduate students increased between 1970 and 1972. However, a further examination of racial and ethnic enrollment by institutions within the state shows that 861 of the 1,169 black graduate students enrolled in 1970 were found at Atlanta University (484), Fort Valley State (157) and Georgia State University in Atlanta (168). Only 88 blacks were enrolled on the main University campus at Athens. By 1972, Atlanta University accounted for 773 of the total; Georgia State University enrolled 349 and the University of Georgia at Athens accounted for 140 of the total number of black graduate students.

The pattern of larger enrolments of black graduate students at the traditionally all-black public universities and colleges and smaller black enrollment at the traditionally all-white univiersities and colleges is repeated in Louisiana. For example, in 1972, more black students were enrolled as graduate students on the Baton Rouge campus of Southern

University (96) than at the Baton Rouge campus of Louisiana State University (52).

On the other hand, the College Park Campus of the University of Maryland accounted for more than one-half (459/764) of all the blacks enrolled as graduate students in 1972. In 1970, a total of 176 blacks were on the campus of the University of Maryland.

Jackson State accounted for 295 of Mississippi's 419 black graduate students in 1970 and for 186 of the 325 enrolled in 1972. However, in both reporting years, the combined total of black enrolled at the University of Mississippi, Mississippi State University and the University of Southern Mississippi did not exceed 91 in either year.

The Chapel Hill and Charlotte campuses of the University of North Carolina experienced a growth in the number of black graduate students as their enrollments increased from 148 to 377. However, in 1972, North Carolina Central University, with 158, and North Carolina A. & T. University, with 321, accounted for more than 50 per cent of all black graduate students in the state of North Carolina.

In Oklahoma, during both of the reporting years, almost half of the black graduate students were enrolled on the main campus of the University. The remainder were distributed primarily at Oklahoma State University and the smaller state teachers colleges.

The state of Pennsylvania presents a particularly interesting profile. In both reporting years, Temple University and the University of Pittsburgh enrolled double the number of black graduate students as enrolled at the University of Pennsylvania or at Penn State. For example, in 1972, Pitt enrolled 300 black graduate students whereas the University of Pennsylvania enrolled 150. In 1970, the figures were 297 and 159, respectively.

Virginia State College, the traditionally all-black college, enrolls more blacks at the graduate level than does the University of Virginia. The enrollment figures for Virginia State College in 1970 and 1972 were 78 and 89, respectively. In contrast the enrollment figures for the University of Virginia in 1970 and 1972 were 38 and 51, respectively. Perhaps, an explanation for the lowered enrollment at the University of Virginia can be partially found in the number of blacks (58) enrolled at Virginia Commonwealth University and elsehwere in the State.

These statistics, although demonstrating some slight improvements in the access patterns of blacks to graduate schools, also show a persistent pattern of graduate school segregation or containment in those states immediately affected by the decision in the Adams v. Richardson case.

The national profile can be obtained by a careful examination of Tables 6 and 7.

Table 6
HEW Racial and Ethnic Enrollment Data From Institutions of Higher Education, Fall, 1970 - Graduate

(STATE SUMMARIES)

	AMERICAN INDIAN	%	NEGRO	%	ORIENTAL	%	SPANISH SURNAME	%	MINORITY	%	OTHER	%	TOTAL	%
ALABAMA														
ARIZONA	2		982	10.1	44	.9	31	.7	939	19.7	3,825	80.3	4,764	100.0
ARKANSAS	11	.2	42	.9	53	.9	104	1.8	220	3.9	5,406	96.1	5,626	100.0
CALIFORNIA	22	.0	72	3.1	35	1.7	14	.6	148	6.4	2,144	93.6	2,316	100.0
COLORADO	204	.5	1,695	3.1	2,067	3.8	1,442	2.6	5,408	10.0	49,154	90.0	54,646	100.0
CONNECTICUT	27	.6	134	2.9	170	2.5	134	3.2	437	9.2	4,333	90.8	4,770	100.0
DELAWARE	2	.1	119	7.1	52	3.1	18	1.1	190	11.5	1,463	88.5	1,653	100.0
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA	2	.2	21	2.3	6	.7	1	.1	50	3.4	880	96.7	910	100.0
FLORIDA	15	.2	1,170	18.6	114	1.9	94	1.5	1,349	22.7	4,716	77.8	6,065	100.0
GEORGIA	14	.7	262	3.3	191	3.1	207	3.4	674	10.1	5,470	89.9	6,084	100.0
IDAHO	2		1,161	12.3	174	1.8	57	.6	1,394	14.8	8,047	85.2	9,443	100.0
ILLINOIS	10	1.7	5	.9	19	3.3	3	.5	37	6.4	538	93.6	575	100.0
INDIANA	53	.2	1,240	5.1	468	1.9	205	.8	1,966	8.0	22,545	92.0	24,511	100.0
IOWA	49	.4	386	3.1	101	.8	63	.5	599	4.9	11,670	95.1	12,269	100.0
KANSAS	7	.1	77	.9	49	.6	44	.5	177	2.0	8,655	98.0	8,832	100.0
KENTUCKY	66	.7	178	2.0	116	1.3	66	1.0	426	6.4	5,915	93.6	6,321	100.0
LOUISIANA	5	.1	86	2.4	21	.6	13	.4	125	3.5	3,465	96.5	3,590	100.0
MAINE	21	.4	250	5.0	67	1.1	64	1.1	468	7.6	5,448	92.4	5,896	100.0
MARYLAND			1	.1	1	.1	3	.6	5	.7	732	99.3	737	100.0
MASSACHUSETTS	21	.3	198	6.0	257	4.0	61	1.0	729	11.4	5,689	88.6	6,418	100.0
MICHIGAN	33	.2	642	3.2	174	.9	157	.9	1,006	5.0	19,309	95.0	20,315	100.0
MINNESOTA	43	.5	1,210	7.9	97	.6	85	.6	1,435	9.3	13,982	90.7	15,357	100.0
MISSISSIPPI	16	.2	102	1.8	101	1.7	58	.6	418	4.0	9,951	96.0	10,369	100.0
MISSOURI	1		419	15.3	23	.8	3	.1	446	16.3	2,284	83.7	2,730	100.0
MONTANA	29	.2	392	3.2	79	.6	118	1.0	618	5.1	11,616	94.9	12,234	100.0
NEBRASKA	1	.7			1	.7	2	1.3	4	2.7	145	97.3	149	100.0
NEVADA	3	.1	65	2.6	14	.5	8	.3	90	3.3	2,673	96.7	2,763	100.0
NEW HAMPSHIRE	5	.3	12	.7	4	.4	10	.6	31	2.0	1,588	98.0	1,619	100.0
NEW JERSEY			11	1.0	4	.4	2	.2	17	1.6	1,035	98.4	1,052	100.0
NEW MEXICO	4		205	3.0	88	1.0	54	.6	411	4.6	8,428	95.4	8,839	100.0
NEW YORK	24	1.1	26	1.2	20	.9	161	7.4	231	10.6	1,952	89.4	2,183	100.0
NORTH CAROLINA	105	.4	1,443	3.7	866	2.2	493	1.3	2,967	7.6	35,697	92.4	38,664	100.0
NORTH DAKOTA	24	.3	284	3.4	38	.4	47	.6	393	4.6	8,001	95.4	8,494	100.0
OHIO	2	.1	8	.5	1	.1	1	.1	12	.7	1,762	99.3	1,774	100.0
OKLAHOMA	61	.2	715	3.8	481	2.5	78	.4	1,335	6.9	18,179	93.1	19,514	100.0
OREGON	104	1.8	169	2.9	160	2.8	32	.6	465	8.1	5,300	91.9	5,765	100.0
PENNSYLVANIA	40	.6	89	1.4	171	2.7	53	.8	353	5.6	5,908	94.4	6,261	100.0
RHODE ISLAND	47	.2	743	4.1	517	2.9	130	.7	1,437	8.0	16,594	92.0	18,031	100.0
SOUTH CAROLINA	1	.1	9	.7	15	1.1	16	1.0	39	2.9	1,302	97.1	1,341	100.0
SOUTH DAKOTA	3	.1	64	3.2	4	.1	10	.5	81	2.7	2,885	97.3	2,966	100.0
TENNESSEE	10	1.9	2	.4	5	.9	1	.2	18	3.2	542	96.8	560	100.0
TEXAS	7	.1	357	6.7	110	2.1	16	.3	486	9.2	4,823	90.8	5,309	100.0
UTAH	41	.6	444	3.1	232	1.6	934	3.7	1,269	8.8	13,178	91.2	14,447	100.0
VERMONT	18	.3	16	.3	38	.7	28	.5	100	1.9	5,116	98.1	5,216	100.0
VIRGINIA			11	1.5	15	2.0	7	.9	33	4.4	716	95.6	749	100.0
WASHINGTON	9	.2	273	5.9	57	1.1	18	.4	357	7.2	4,610	92.8	4,967	100.0
WISCONSIN	17	.3	72	1.3	70	1.3	28	.5	187	3.5	5,199	96.5	5,386	100.0
	9	.1	286	2.9	155	1.6	55	.6	905	9.1	9,005	90.9	9,910	100.0

Table 7
HEW Racial and Ethnic Enrollment Data From Institutions of Higher Education, Fall, 1972 - Graduate

	AMERICAN INDIAN	%	NEGRO	%	ORIENTAL	%	SPANISH SURNAME	%	OTHER	%	TOTAL MINORITY	%	TOTAL	%
ALABAMA	2	.0	967	21.1	45	1.0	25	.5	3,468	77.2	1,019	22.7	4,487	100.0
ARIZONA	58	.8	55	.9	89	1.3	131	1.9	6,510	95.1	333	4.8	6,843	100.0
ARKANSAS	13	.5	88	3.3	42	1.7	5	.2	2,214	94.0	148	5.9	2,354	100.0
CALIFORNIA	708	.5	2,354	6.4	2,893	3.9	1,753	3.3	45,836	87.5	6,508	12.4	52,344	100.0
COLORADO	31	.5	157	2.7	108	1.9	147	2.6	5,196	92.1	443	7.8	5,639	100.0
CONNECTICUT	39	.7	156	2.9	121	2.2	54	1.0	4,906	92.9	378	7.0	5,276	100.0
DELAWARE	4	.7	4	.4	2	.2	8	.0	813	98.5	12	1.4	825	100.0
DIST. OF COL.	17	.2	1,488	20.0	95	1.3	110	1.5	5,359	78.7	1,672	23.2	6,981	100.0
FLORIDA	13	.1	458	5.7	255	3.2	131	1.6	6,948	89.1	849	10.8	7,789	100.0
GEORGIA	18	.1	1,457	13.9	96	.9	41	.3	8,855	84.5	1,612	15.4	10,467	100.0
IDAHO	1	.2	6	1.5	11	2.7	2	.5	376	94.9	20	5.0	396	100.0
ILLINOIS	48	.2	1,282	5.5	451	1.9	184	.8	20,976	91.4	1,967	8.5	22,943	100.0
INDIANA	27	.2	452	3.8	91	.8	65	.5	10,976	94.5	637	5.4	11,613	100.0
IOWA	4	.0	108	2.0	48	.7	25	.4	5,199	96.7	177	3.2	5,376	100.0
KANSAS	20	.4	126	2.7	137	3.0	49	1.0	4,283	92.8	372	7.9	4,655	100.0
KENTUCKY	2	.0	111	5.3	88	4.2	11	.5	1,866	89.7	212	10.2	2,078	100.0
LOUISIANA	14	.2	478	8.4	54	.9	38	.6	5,045	89.6	584	10.3	5,629	100.0
MAINE	2	.4	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	411	99.5	2	.4	413	100.0
MARYLAND	21	.1	744	5.0	198	1.2	151	.9	14,102	92.5	1,134	7.4	15,236	100.0
MASSACHUSETTS	15	.1	745	3.8	174	.9	180	.8	18,854	94.1	1,114	5.8	19,168	100.0
MICHIGAN	45	.2	1,165	6.5	186	1.0	144	.8	16,278	91.3	1,540	8.6	17,818	100.0
MINNESOTA	18	.4	155	1.6	248	2.5	53	.5	9,895	94.8	495	5.1	9,390	100.0
MISSISSIPPI	0	.0	325	12.6	79	3.0	16	.6	2,149	83.6	420	16.3	2,569	100.0
MISSOURI	15	.1	364	4.6	36	.4	65	.5	7,348	94.1	440	5.8	7,800	100.0
MONTANA	8	.7	3	.2	10	.9	2	.1	1,072	97.8	23	2.1	1,095	100.0
NEBRASKA	0	.0	34	1.8	7	.1	7	.3	1,748	97.5	43	2.4	1,791	100.0
NEVADA	2	.3	7	1.1	0	.0	5	.8	583	97.6	14	2.3	597	100.0
NEW HAMPSHIRE	2	.2	3	.3	7	.7	1	.1	988	98.6	13	1.3	993	100.0
NEW JERSEY	4	.0	543	9.7	118	2.1	45	1.1	4,841	86.8	730	13.1	5,571	100.0
NEW MEXICO	18	.7	38	1.5	22	.8	250	10.1	2,128	86.6	328	13.3	2,456	100.0
NEW YORK	117	.2	2,183	5.2	1,281	3.0	641	1.5	37,681	89.9	4,222	10.0	41,903	100.0
NORTH CAROLINA	28	.2	987	10.0	42	.4	64	.6	8,671	88.5	1,121	11.4	9,792	100.0
NORTH DAKOTA	13	1.0	5	.4	1	.0	3	.2	1,169	98.1	22	1.8	1,191	100.0
OHIO	31	.1	805	4.7	387	2.3	85	.5	15,586	92.2	1,308	7.7	16,814	100.0
OKLAHOMA	165	2.1	285	3.6	99	1.2	59	.7	7,205	92.2	608	7.7	7,813	100.0
OREGON	35	.7	95	1.9	178	3.7	54	1.1	4,428	92.4	362	7.5	4,790	100.0
PENNSYLVANIA	49	.2	821	4.7	275	1.6	91	.5	15,886	92.7	1,236	7.2	17,122	100.0
RHODE ISLAND	4	.1	68	2.4	58	2.1	92	3.3	2,488	91.8	220	8.1	2,708	100.0
SOUTH CAROLINA	6	.3	154	8.5	2	.1	1	.0	1,648	90.9	163	9.0	1,803	100.0
SOUTH DAKOTA	12	1.7	3	.4	1	.1	2	.2	665	97.3	18	2.6	683	100.0
TENNESSEE	86	1.4	497	8.6	43	.7	10	.1	5,148	88.9	636	11.0	5,776	100.0
TEXAS	153	.6	789	3.4	541	2.3	861	3.7	20,856	89.8	2,346	10.1	23,196	100.0
UTAH	53	1.1	48	.8	78	1.5	60	1.2	4,397	95.1	223	4.8	4,620	100.0
VERMONT	1	.0	45	3.5	1	.0	7	.5	1,284	95.7	54	4.2	1,258	100.0
VIRGINIA	17	.2	385	5.2	57	.9	11	.1	5,416	93.2	390	6.7	5,806	100.0

	AMERICAN INDIAN	%	NEGRO	%	ORIENTAL	%	SPANISH SURNAME	%	OTHER	%	TOTAL MINORITY	%	TOTAL	%
WASHINGTON	47	.6	192	2.5	253	3.3	99	1.0	6,916	92.3	572	7.6	7,488	100.0
WEST VIRGINIA	8	.0	31	1.4	19	.8	4	.1	2,092	97.4	54	2.5	2,146	100.0
WISCONSIN	35	.3	299	2.8	95	.9	104	1.0	9,859	94.8	533	5.1	10,392	100.0
WYOMING	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	100.0

A study of Ph.D. granting institutions, conducted by the Higher Education Panel, provided enrollment data for 1973, which is the latest available data on the subject. 154 of the 220 Ph.D. granting institutions were surveyed - a 70 per cent return, accounting for 60 per cent of the Fall 1973 graduate enrollment.

Their findings showed that Black, Spanish-surnamed, Asian American, and American Indians accounted for approximately 7.2 per cent of graduate enrollment in the institutions surveyed. Blacks accounted for 4.4 per cent of the total enrollment. Publicly supported institutions enrolled somewhat more minority graduate students (7.4 per cent) than did the private institutions included in the survey (6.5 per cent).[46] It is also interesting to note that the highest enrollment of minorities (8.1 per cent) was found at institutions receiving the highest level of support in contrast to the 5.7 per cent minority enrollment at institutions receiving the lowest levels of DHEW support.[47]

Blacks represented 7.2 per cent of all persons seeking doctorates in Education; 5.8 per cent of those enrolled in Sociology; 5.5 per cent of those enrolled in the health professions; 1.2 per cent each of those persons seeking a doctorate in Engineering, Physics, Biochemistry, and other Life Sciences.[48] When black students were analyzed as a group in terms of their own areas of Ph.D. training, the data showed the following concentrations: Education (43 per cent); Arts and Humanities (9.3%); Basic Social Sciences (9.1%); and 4.5% in the Health Sciences. In fact, "the percentage of black students in the fields of engineering, life sciences and physical sciences were lower than the proportions in these fields reported for all other minority groups or for all students."[49]

These data reveal a continuing pattern of underrepresentation of black students in those areas in which the projected manpower shortages for 1980

and 1985 are the most severe. They suggest, moreover, that major programs must be designed to attract more blacks into these fields of study in which the demand is greatest.

Professional Schools: Medicine, Dentistry and Law

Inasmuch as the DHEW data are reported differently between 1970 and 1972, this analysis proceeds in a different manner than was the case for our discussion of graduate schools. In 1970, for example, the data on professional schools were separated in terms of such categories as medical colleges, dental and law schools. However, in 1972, the data were combined as "professional schools" without such distinctions as had been provided in 1970. Thus, other sources were used for the analysis of enrollment patterns from 1972 onward. Unfortunately, we have no reliable data for such professions as architecture, pharmacy and nursing.

Medicine

The failures of recruitment in the medical field in the pre-1970 period are reflected in the total number of physicians trained in various periods up to that time. (The reader is also cautioned that the reduction in the number of black physicians during some periods may also indicate the greater availability of entry into other fields of study and professional activity as well as less than favorable economic situations at the time.)

The black population in the United States increased by 89 per cent (from slightly less than 12 million to about 23 million) between 1930 and 1970. However, during roughly the same period, 1930-1967, the nation experienced only a 24 per cent increase in the total number of black physicians or a net gain of 905.[50] Throughout that period, the actual number of black medical students fluctuated almost from year to year. For example, the number of black students at the predominantly white medical schools dropped by 24 per cent, that is from 216 to 164 between the 1955-56 school year and

the 1961-62 academic year. However, the accelerated recruitment programs began to have positive results during the 1969-70 school year when the 546 black medical students enrolled in predominantly white medical schools more than doubled the 1955-56 enrollment figure. Unfortunately, the proportion of black medical school students had not yet begun to show significant changes. In 1969-70, the proportion of black medical students was only 2.75 per cent of the total enrollment, which represented a slight increase over the 1947-48 proportion of 2.59 per cent of the total.[51]

By the 1972-73 academic year, the proportion of black medical students had reached 6.4 per cent and remained at the same level in 1973-74, despite actual increases in the total number of black medical students. (See Table 8)

Table 8

Percentage Minority Enrollment in U.S. Medical Schools, 1972-73 and 1973-74

	1972-73		1973-74	
	No.	%	No.	%
First Year Enrollment				
Afro American	858	6.4	870	6.4
Mexican American	151	1.1	170	1.2
American Indian	33	0.2	33	0.2
Puerto Rican (Mainland)	44	0.3	48	0.3
Four Group Total	1,086	8.1	1,121	8.2
Graduates				
Afro-American	341	3.3	511	4.5
Mexican American	39	0.4	79	0.7
American Indian	8	0.08	3	0.03
Puerto Rican (Mainland)	10	0.1	19	0.2
Four Group Total	398	3.8	612	5.4
Total Enrollment				
Afro-American	2,593	5.5	2,961	5.9
Mexican American	380	0.8	512	1.0
American Indian	68	0.1	93	0.2
Puerto Rican (Mainland)	98	0.2	140	0.3
Four Group Total	3,139	6.6	3,706	7.4

Source: JAMA Supplement, January 1975, Vol 231

Table 9 shows the enrollment of black students in medical, dental and law schools within the Adams States during 1970. The enrollments for the nation, as a whole, state by state, in medical schools during that year are shown in Table 10.

Table 9

Enrollment of Black Medical, Dental and Law Students in Adams States by Number and Per Cent of Total, 1970

State	Medical Schools			Dental Schools			Law Schools		
	# Black Students	%	Total Enrolled	# Black Students	%	Total Enrolled	# Black Students	%	Total Enrolled
Ark.	3	.7	416	-	-	-	10	2.3	435
Fla.	11	1.6	680	-	-	-	16	.8	1,995
Ga.	27	3.1	882	2	.6	354	24	2.3	1,030
La.	12	1.1	1,137	-	-	145	61	4.6	1,335
Md.	22	4.5	494	-	-	-	6	2.8	214
Miss.	6	1.7	349	-	-	-	-	-	-
N.C.	33	3.3	991	1	.4	243	99	10.0	993
Okla.	9	1.2	732	-	-	-	14	1.6	854
Penn.	84	3.0	2,788	12	.7	1,628	107	3.4	3,123
Va.	12	1.4	863	-	-	543	28	1.8	1,575
Total	219	2.2	9,272	15	.5	2,913	365	3.2	11,454

Source: Racial and Ethnic Enrollment Data From Institutions of Higher Education Fall, 1970, DHEW, Office of Civil Rights.

Table 10

HEW Racial and Ethnic Enrollment Data From Institutions of Higher Education, Fall 1970: Medical Schools - Fulltime Enrollees

(STATE SUMMARIES)

	AMERICAN INDIAN	%	NEGRO	%	ORIENTAL	%	SPANISH SURNAME	%	MINORITY	%	OTHER	%	TOTAL	%
ALABAMA			7	1.9					7	1.9	363	98.1	370	100.0
ARIZONA	1	.5	2	1.0	3	1.4	4	2.1	10	5.2	184	94.8	194	100.0
ARKANSAS			3	.7	2	.5			5	1.2	411	98.8	416	100.0
CALIFORNIA	5	.2	117	4.5	154	6.0	72	2.8	350	13.4	2,268	86.6	2,618	100.0
COLORADO			2	.7	6	1.4	5	1.1	14	3.2	427	96.8	441	100.0
CONNECTICUT			22	4.8	2	.4	2	.4	26	5.6	436	94.4	462	100.0
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA	1	.1	356	27.2	9	.7	9	.6	371	28.6	934	71.6	1,307	100.0
FLORIDA			11	1.6	1	.1	33	4.9	45	6.6	635	93.4	680	100.0
GEORGIA			27	3.1	5	.6	6	.7	38	4.3	844	95.7	882	100.0
ILLINOIS	1		57	2.3	38	1.5	10	.4	106	4.2	2,405	95.8	2,511	100.0
INDIANA	3	.4	13	1.6	3	.4	3	.4	22	2.6	810	97.4	832	100.0
IOWA	2	.2	4	.4	6	.7	1	.1	13	1.4	892	98.6	905	100.0
KANSAS	1	.2	10	2.0	5	1.0	2	.4	18	3.6	485	96.4	503	100.0
KENTUCKY			6	.8			2	.3	8	1.1	731	98.9	739	100.0
LOUISIANA	1	.1	12	1.1	4	.4	11	1.0	28	2.5	1,109	97.5	1,137	100.0
MARYLAND			22	4.5	8	1.6	1	.2	31	6.3	463	93.7	494	100.0
MASSACHUSETTS	2	.1	64	4.6	20	1.3	5	.3	96	6.4	1,404	93.6	1,500	100.0
MICHIGAN	5	.1	322	5.2	295	4.8	81	1.3	703	11.3	5,507	88.7	6,210	100.0
MINNESOTA	2	.3	26	3.5	27	3.7			55	7.5	680	92.5	735	100.0
MISSISSIPPI			6	1.7					6	1.7	343	98.3	349	100.0
MISSOURI			13	1.4	2	.2	2	.2	17	1.9	882	98.1	899	100.0
NEBRASKA	1	.1	4	.8	8	1.8	6	.8	21	2.6	779	97.4	800	100.0
NEW HAMPSHIRE			2	1.9					2	1.9	103	98.1	105	100.0
NEW MEXICO	2	1.4	1	.7	1	.7	11	7.6	15	10.3	130	89.7	145	100.0
NEW YORK	1		141	2.0	63	1.3	22	.5	227	4.8	4,469	95.2	4,696	100.0
NORTH CAROLINA			33	3.3	4	.4			37	3.7	954	96.3	991	100.0
NORTH DAKOTA											109	100.0	109	100.0
OHIO	6	.3	92	3.0	15	.9	1	.1	74	4.2	1,675	95.8	1,749	100.0
OKLAHOMA	3	.4	9	1.2	10	1.4	4	.5	26	3.6	706	96.4	732	100.0
OREGON			2	.4	10	2.2			12	2.7	433	97.3	445	100.0
PENNSYLVANIA	1		84	3.0	21	.8	7	.3	113	4.1	2,675	95.9	2,788	100.0
SOUTH CAROLINA			6	1.5					6	1.5	397	98.5	403	100.0
SOUTH DAKOTA											102	100.0	102	100.0
TENNESSEE			270	23.7	2	.2			272	23.9	865	76.1	1,137	100.0
TEXAS	1	.1	10	.6	10	.6	40	2.6	61	3.9	1,499	96.1	1,560	100.0
UTAH			1	.4	2	.7	2	.7	5	1.8	271	98.2	276	100.0
VERMONT			1	.4					1	.4	262	99.6	263	100.0
VIRGINIA	4	.5	12	1.4	2	.2			18	2.1	845	97.9	863	100.0
WASHINGTON			7	2.3	15	4.9	1	.3	23	7.5	284	92.5	307	100.0
WISCONSIN			7	.8	13	1.5	1	.1	21	2.5	833	97.5	854	100.0

(REGION AND U. S. SUMMARIES)

	AMERICAN INDIAN	%	NEGRO	%	ORIENTAL	%	SPANISH SURNAME	%	MINORITY	%	OTHER	%	TOTAL	%
I. NORTHERN AND WESTERN STATES **REGION TOTALS**	33	.1	949	3.2	709	2.4	236	.8	1,927	6.5	27,615	93.5	29,542	100.0
II. SOUTHERN STATES TOTAL	6	.1	397	4.5	30	.3	90	1.0	523	6.0	8,265	94.0	8,788	100.0
III. BORDER STATES + D. C. **REGION TOTALS**	10	.1	803	6.2	99	.5	104	.8	976	7.5	11,983	92.5	12,959	100.0
UNITED STATES SUMMARY TOTAL	43	.1	1,752	4.1	768	1.8	340	.8	2,903	6.8	39,598	93.2	42,501	100.0

Medical School enrollments range from three black students in Arkansas to eighty-four in Pennsylvania. It should be noted that these figures represent enrollment at all medical schools within the state rather than those black students enrolled exclusively at the state university or its main campus. For example, 14 of the 27 students enrolled in the state of Georgia were registered at Emory University and only 13 at the Georgia Medical

College. One-half of Louisiana's twelve students were enrolled at Tulane University's School of Medicine. In Pennsylvania, of the total of 84 black medical students, 15 were at Temple; 22 at Pittsburgh, and 28 were at the Thomas Jefferson School of Medicine.

Table 11 shows minority group enrollment in first year classes in U.S. Medical Schools for each year between 1969 and 1974-75. Table 12 shows selected minority group total enrollment in U.S. Medical Schools for the same period. And, Table 13 provides minority student information by individual U.S. Medical Schools.

TABLE 11

Selected Minority Group Enrollment in First-Year Classes in U.S. Medical Schools (1969-1974)

	Black American*		American Indian		Mexican-American		Mainland Puerto Rican		
Year	Number Enrolled	% of Total Enrollment	Number Enrolled	% of Total Enrollment	Number Enrolled	% of Total Enrollment	Number Enrolled	% of Total Enrollment	Total First-Year Enrollment
1969-70	440	4.2	7	0.1	44	0.4	10	0.1	10,422
1970-71	697	6.1	11	0.1	73	0.6	27	0.2	11,348
1971-72	882	7.1	23	0.2	118	1.0	40	0.3	12,361
1972-73	957	7.0	34	0.3	137	1.0	44	0.3	13,677
1973-74	1,023	7.2	44	0.3	174	1.2	56	0.4	14,124
1974-75	1,106	7.5	71	0.5	227	1.5	69	0.5	14,763

*Black Americans at Howard and Meharry medical schools accounted for 120 of these 1969-70 freshmen and 195 of these 1974-75 freshmen.

TABLE 12

Selected Minority Group Total Enrollment in U.S. Medical Schools (1969-1974)

	Black American*		American Indian		Mexican-American		Mainland Puerto Rican		
Year	Number Enrolled	% of Total Enrollment	Number Enrolled	% of Total Enrollment	Number Enrolled	% of Total Enrollment	Number Enrolled	% of Total Enrollment	Total Enrollment
1969-70	1,042	2.8	18	†	92	0.2	26	†	37,690
1970-71	1,509	3.8	18	†	148	0.4	48	0.1	40,238
1971-72	2,055	4.7	42	0.1	252	0.6	76	0.2	43,650
1972-73	2,582	5.5	69	0.2	361	0.8	90	0.2	47,366
1973-74	3,045	6.0	97	0.2	496	1.0	123	0.2	50,716
1974-75	3,355	6.3	159	0.3	638	1.2	172	0.3	53,554

*Black Americans at Howard and Meharry medical schools accounted for 496 of these 1969-70 enrollees and 695 of these 1974-75 enrollees.
†Less than 0.1 percent

Source: Medical School Admission Requirements, 1976-77, p. 51.

Table 13

Minority Student Information by Individual
U.S. Medical Schools

Medical School	Contact Person or Office	Minority Enrollment, Fall 1974*				Minority Faculty & Administration†		
		Black American	American Indian	Mexican-American	Mainland Puerto Rican	Basic Science	Clinical Science	Ad tr
Grand Totals		3,355/1,106	159/71	638/227	172/69			
Alabama	Henry H. Hoffman, Ph.D. Director of Admissions	27/7	0/0	0/0	0/0	0	3	
Alabama, South	Clyde G. Huggins, Ph.D. Assistant Dean	7/4	0/0	0/0	0/0	1	1	
Albany	Eugene H. Horn, Ph.D. Associate Dean	5/3	0/0	0/0	0/0	0	4	
Albert Einstein	Office of Admissions	9/4	0/0	0/0	6/3	–	–	
Arizona	William Willard, Ph.D. Chairman, Minority Group Opportunities Committee	2/1	3/0	11/5	0/0	0	0	
Arkansas	Horace N. Marvin, Ph.D. Associate Dean	13/4	0/0	0/0	0/0	0	2	
Baylor	William T. Butler, M.D. Associate Dean	31/14	3/2	37/13	0/0	2	30	
Boston University	Office of Minority Affairs	36/16	0/0	1/0	7/3	0	15	
Bowman Gray	Carl Cochrane, Ph.D. Professor of Psychology	20/8	0/0	0/0	0/0	0	1	(
Brown	Levi Adams Assistant Vice President	2/0	0/0	1/0	0/0	0	1	1
California – Davis	Andrew M. Goldner, Ph.D. Chairman, Task Force Committee	20/5	1/1	32/9	0/0	2	3	(
California – Irvine	Harvey Williams Assistant Dean	20/17	5/1	20/12	2/1	1	3	1
California – Los Angeles	Office of Admissions	26/6	2/2	45/16	3/1	1	19[a]	1
California – San Diego	Percy J. Russell, Ph.D. Assistant Dean	13/5	1/0	24/4	0/0	3	14	1
California – San Francisco	John A. Watson, Ph.D. Associate Dean (re: Admissions) Charles Story Dean of Students (re: Programs) H. Harrison Sadler, M.D. Associate Dean (re: Student Affairs)	64/14	4/1	47/13	2/1	4	16	1
California, Southern	Althea Alexander Program Director	21/5	2/1	31/9	0/0	19	2	0
Case Western Reserve	Willie S. Williams, Ph.D. Associate Dean Audrey H. Evans, M.D. Assistant Dean	64/16	1/1	1/0	2/1	1	10	3
Chicago Medical	Steven J. Bongard, Ph.D. Assistant Dean	12/5	0/0	1/1	0/0	4	8	0
Chicago – Pritzker	Joseph Cerhaml, Ph.D. Dean of Students	20/2	1/0	1/0	1/1	1	1	0
Cincinnati	Gunter Grupp, M.D. Department of Biomedical Communications	36/17	0/0	0/0	0/0	2	27	0

Table 13 Continued

Minority Student Information by Individual U.S. Medical Schools

Medical School	Contact Person or Office	Minority Enrollment, Fall 1974*				Minority Faculty and Administration†		
		Black American	American Indian	Mexican-American	Mainland Puerto Rican†	Basic Science	Clinical Science	Administration
Colorado	Douglas Clinkscales Director, Minority Affairs	25/6	11/5	28/13	0/0	0	7	2
Columbia	Frederick G. Hoffmann, Ph.D. Associate Dean	43/7	0/0	0/0	9/2	0	300[b]	2
Connecticut	Thomas Duguay Educational Assistant	11/5	0/0	0/0	1/0	0	2	0
Cornell	James L. Curtis, M.D. Associate Dean	37/10	0/0	0/0	10/5	0	6	1
Creighton	John Pierce Coordinator, Minority Education	16/8	3/2	5/1	0/0	2	5	0
Dartmouth	Jaime A. Estavillo, Ph.D. Faculty Advisor, Minority Student Affairs	8/5	8/3	2/2	0/0	3	1	1
Duke	William Bradford, M.D. Associate Director	27/10	1/0	0/0	3/1	1	4	0
Emory	Glenn R. Clark, Jr., M.D. Assistant Dean	13/3	1/0	0/0	0/0	0	19	1
Florida (including FSU)	Willie J. Sanders, Ph.D. Director, Black Students Health Professions Coalition	47/20	0/0	0/0	0/0	5	1	1
Florida, South	Julian J. Dwornik, Ph.D. Assistant Dean	3/1	0/0	0/0	0/0	0	0	0
Georgetown	Arthur H. Hoyte, M.D. Director of Special Programs for Student Development and Community Health	35/13	2/2	3/3	5/0	4	70	1
George Washington	L. Thompson Bowles, M.D., Ph.D. Associate Dean	20/7	0/0	1/1	0/0	5[c]	54[c]	0[c]
Georgia	Assistant Director of Student Affairs Office of Minority Affairs	32/7	1/1	0/0	0/0	0	0	1
Hahnemann	Thomas Taylor Assistant Dean	46/18	0/0	1/1	4/4	4	18	0
Harvard	Alvin F. Poussaint, M.D Associate Dean	65/14	6/3	13/4	3/1	–	–	–
Hawaii	Benjamin B. C. Young, M.D. Assistant Dean	0/0	1/0	0/0	0/0	–	–	–
Howard	Reid E. Jackson, Ed.D. Associate Dean	349/103	0/0	0/0	0/0		500[d]	6
Illinois	Thomas Deaderick, Coordinator Special Programs	96/31	1/0	13/7	3/0	3	40	1
Illinois, Southern	Michael Rainey, Ph.D. Director, MEDPREP	7/6	0/0	1/1	0/0	1	2	0
Indiana	Jay M. Smith Director, Minority Programs and Student Financial Services	42/14	0/0	2/1	2/1	6	29	1

Table 13 Continued

Minority Student Information by Individual U.S. Medical Schools

Medical School	Contact Person or Office	Minority Enrollment, Fall 1974*				Minority Faculty and Administration		
		Black American	American Indian	Mexican-American	Mainland Puerto Rican	Basic Science	Clinical Science	Administrator
Iowa	George L. Baker, M.D. Associate Dean	19/6	1/1	0/0	0/0	1	1	2
Jefferson	Samuel S. Conly, Jr., M.D. Director of Admissions	32/9	0/0	0/0	3/0	0	11	1
Johns Hopkins	Roland T. Smoot, M.D. Office of Predoctoral Programs	23/5	0/0	5/0	0/0	–	–	–
Kansas	Chester Rempson Assistant Vice Chancellor	22/9	5/2	4/2	1/1	1	10	1
Kentucky	Special Student Programs	12/7	0/0	0/0	0/0	0	2	0
Loma Linda	Office of Admissions	19/9	2/1	11/2	1/0	0	15	1
Louisiana – New Orleans	D. J. Guidry, Ph.D. Assistant Dean Albert J. Bocage, Ph.D. Minority Liaison Officer	20/5	0/0	0/0	0/0	1	7	0
Louisiana – Shreveport	Office of Admissions, Student Affairs, and Records	2/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	0	1	0
Louisville	James C. Moore, M.D. Associate Dean	15/5	0/0	0/0	0/0	1	2	0
Loyola – Stritch	William B. Rich, M.D. Associate Dean	22/6	2/0	0/0	1/1	–	–	–
Maryland	Robert Harrell, Ph.D. Assistant Dean	33/11	1/0	0/0	0/0	4	30	1
Massachusetts	Edgar E. Smith, Ph.D. Associate Dean	5/5	0/0	0/0	1/1	2	1	1
Mayo	Gerald M. Needham, Ph.D. Associate Dean	6/3	0/0	0/0	0/0	1	0	1
Meharry	Office of Admissions and Records	346/92	2/2	4/2	1/1	40	107	32
Miami	Gerry B. Mendelson, Ed.D. Committee on Minority Affairs	13/7	0/0	0/0	0/0	1	6	0
Michigan State	Thomas S. Gunnings, Ph.D. Assistant Dean	36/9	3/2	15/5	1/1	4	1	1
Michigan, University of	Colin Campbell, M.D. Assistant Dean	100/32	1/0	5/1	3/0	–	–	–
Minnesota – Duluth	Robert S. Pozos, Ph.D. Assistant Professor	0/0	4/2	1/1	0/0	1	0	1
Minnesota – Minneapolis	Office of Opportunities in Health for Minorities	37/11	5/0	15/9	2/0	0	0	1
Mississippi	Peter Stewart Coordinator, Minority Affairs	29/16	0/0	0/0	0/0	0	2	1
Missouri – Columbia	James D. Dexter, M.D. Assistant Dean	14/3	1/1	3/0	0/0	2	0	0
Missouri – Kansas City	Jackson C. Van Treece Assistant Dean	11/6	0/0	1/0	0/0	0	0	2
Mount Sinai	Office for Student Affairs	12/3	0/0	1/1	9/5	–	–	–

Table 13 Continued

Minority Student Information by Individual U.S. Medical Schools

Medical School	Contact Person or Office	Minority Enrollment, Fall 1974*				Minority Faculty and Administration†		
		Black American	American Indian	Mexican-American	Mainland Puerto Rican	Basic Science	Clinical Science	Adm trati
Nebraska	Kenneth E. Shearer Assistant to the Dean	6/4	2/0	0/0	1/0	0	1	1
Nevada – Reno	Owen C. Peck, M.D. Director, Student Affairs	0/0	1/1	0/0	0/0	1	1	2
New Jersey:								
CMDNJ – New Jersey Medical	Joseph P. Tassoni, Ph.D. Associate Dean	73/25	0/0	1/1	10/7	–	–	–
CMDNJ – Rutgers	Richard C. Mason, Ph.D. Associate Dean	34/9	1/1	1/0	7/2	9[d]		4
New Mexico	Alonzo C. Atencio, Ph.D. Assistant Dean	3/1	8/3	46/15	0/0	1	11	1
New York Medical	Anthony A. Clemendor, M.D. Associate Dean	10/4	0/0	1/0	9/3	2	22	4
New York University	Martin S. Begun Associate Dean	24/8	0/0	0/0	6/1	10	28	120
New York:								
SUNY – Buffalo	Phyllis G. Blazer Coordinator, Medical Admissions Services	73/22	1/0	1/0	5/0	7	23	1
SUNY – Downstate	Jerome P. Parnell, Ph.D. Chairman, Admissions Committee	50/20	0/0	0/0	12/5	0	46	1
SUNY – Stony Brook	Office of Medical Admissions	9/2	0/0	0/0	6/1	3	30[b]	1
SUNY – Upstate	Walter Leavell, M.D. Associate Dean John Hassell Administrative Assistant	16/7	1/1	0/0	1/0	2	4	1
North Carolina (including ECU)	Marion Phillips, Ph.D. Assistant Dean	56/21	4/3	0/0	0/0	0	2	1
North Dakota	Bernard Kahrahrah Director, INMED	0/0	9/5	0/0	0/0	1	0	0
Northwestern	Charles A. Berry Associate Dean	28/5	0/0	5/3	1/0	4	8	4
Ohio, Medical College of	Ronald J. Thompson Director, Office of Admissions	9/4	0/0	1/0	0/0	1	2	0
Ohio State	Elson Craig, M.D. Assistant Dean J. Hutchison Williams, M.D. Assistant Dean	35/21	0/0	2/1	0/0	2	12	1
Oklahoma	R. Gibson Parrish, M.D. Department of Anesthesiology	10/8	18/8	11/0	0/0	5	13	0
Oregon	William Jackson Affirmative Action Officer	1/0	2/0	1/0	0/0	0	2	1
Pennsylvania, Medical College of	Mary Ellen Hartman, M.D. Associate Dean	5/2	/0	0/0	0/0	1	1	0

Table 13 Continued

Medical School	Contact Person or Office	Minority Enrollment, Fall 1974*				Minority Faculty and Administrators		
		Black American	American Indian	Mexican-American	Mainland Puerto Rican	Basic Science	Clinical Science	Administration
Pennsylvania State	Office of Student Affairs	18/7	0/0	2/1	0/0	4	3	2
Pennsylvania, University of	Helen O. Dickens, M.D. Associate Dean	46/17	0/0	0/0	0/0	10	13	1
Pittsburgh	Edward N. Peterson, M.D. Assistant Dean	30/8	0/0	0/0	0/0	2	8	1
Puerto Rico	Carlos Velez Director, Academic Orientation Program	1/0	0/0	0/0	414/110[d]	51	224	184
Rochester	William T. Van Huysen, M.D. Associate Dean	20/3	0/0	0/0	1/1	1	16	1
Rush	Office of Admissions and Student Affairs	27/7	0/0	4/1	0/0	4	16	1
Saint Louis	Calvin A. Richins, Ph.D. Minority Admissions	37/6	0/0	2/0	0/0	2	15	0
South Carolina	M. H. Lambright, M.D. Assistant Dean	28/11	0/0	0/0	0/0	2	4	1
South Dakota	George C. Rinker, Ph.D. Associate Dean	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	0	0	0
Stanford	Office of the Committees on Admission	26/11	3/1	33/8	0/0	1	5	10
Temple	Charles S. Ireland, Jr. Director, Recruitment and Retention	69/24	2/0	2/1	9/4	0	10	2
Tennessee	Roland Woodson Director for Minority Affairs	12/4	0/0	0/0	0/0	1	3	7
Texas–Galveston	E. Gene Powell Director of Admissions Raymond Fuente Coordinator of Minority Programs	12/3	0/0	13/8	0/0	2	3	2
Texas–Houston	Susan S. Skrovan, M.D. Assistant Dean	4/2	0/0	4/3	0/0	1	11	0
Texas–San Antonio	Magda Hinojosa Special Assistant to the President	19/11	1/0	42/17	0/0	1	19	2
Texas–Southwestern (Dallas)	Bryan Williams, M.D. Office of Student Affairs	10/4	2/2	36/10	0/0	12	19	2
Texas Tech	M. H. Teague, Ed.D. Registrar and Director of Admissions	6/3	0/0	8/6	0/0	2	13	7
Tufts	James R. Morehead, Ph.D. Coordinator, Minority Student Affairs	31/16	0/0	0/0	8/3	0	12	1
Tulane	Anna Cherrie-Epps, Ph.D. Director, Minority Education	40/16	3/2	0/0	0/0	0	8	0
Utah	Admissions Office	2/1	6/4	20/5	0/0	2	9	0
Vanderbilt	Richard M. Scott Director, Student Services	11/6	0/0	0/0	0/0	1	1	0

Table 13 Continued

Minority Student Information by Individual U.S. Medical Schools

Medical School	Contact Person or Office	Minority Enrollment, Fall 1974*				Minority Faculty and Administration‡		
		Black American	American Indian	Mexican-American	Mainland Puerto Rican†	Basic Science	Clinical Science	Administration
Vermont	David M. Tormey, M.D. Associate Dean	3/1	0/0	0/0	0/0	1	0	1
Virginia, Eastern	Dr. Herbert Schapiro Director, Student Affairs	3/1	0/0	0/0	0/0	2	3	0
Virginia, Medical College of	Miles E. Hench, Ph.D. Associate Dean	34/14	0/0	0/0	0/0	1	2	0
Virginia, University of	James Q. Miller, M.D. Professor of Neurology	11/3	0/0	0/0	0/0	8	18	0
Washington University – St. Louis	Robert Lee Minority Student Affairs	47/17	0/0	1/0	1/0	1	42	1
Washington, University of	Admissions Office	15/5	6/3	10/4	1/1	4	9	0
Wayne State	M. A. Edwards Director of Recruitment	56/23	1/1	0/0	1/1	3	5	2
West Virginia	David Z. Morgan, M.D. Associate Dean	4/0	0/0	1/0	0/0	0	0	0
Wisconsin, Medical College of	F. Marvin Hannah Director of Minority Affairs	15/10	0/0	3/2	1/0	2	20	2
Wisconsin, University of	George I. Lythcott Associate Vice Chancellor	18/3	0/0	4/2	0/0	–	–	–
Wright State	J. Robert Suriano, Ph.D. Associate Dean for Student Affairs/Admissions	*f*	*f*	*f*	*f*	–	–	–
Yale	James P. Comer, M.D. Associate Dean	40/6	1/0	0/0	6/5	4	9	1

*The first figure under each category is the total number of minority students in the student body; the second figure is the number of minority students in the 1974-75 first-year class. Source of the data is the AAMC Fall 1974 Enrollment Questionnaire.

†Figures at each school include students who are mainland Puerto Rican residents only and not residents of the commonwealth of Puerto Rico.

‡Minority faculty includes only black Americans, American Indians, Mexican-Americans, and mainland Puerto Ricans. Part-time faculty included.

– Information not provided

[a]Does not include part-time faculty members who are primarily in clinical practice.

[b]Includes faculty members at affiliated teaching hospitals.

[c]Data for minority faculty and administration include black and Spanish-surnamed people only.

[d]Faculty not listed by area of responsibility.

[e]Figures for mainland Puerto Rican students at the University of Puerto Rico School of Medicine are not included in the grand totals figure.

*f*School plans to accept a first-year entering class in fall 1976 provided that the school receives provisional accreditation as a developing school by the LCME

Source: Medical School Admission Requirements, 1976-77, p. 51.

Since the data provided by the discussion of medical schools are illustrative of areas of success and patterns of enrollment which may be of special concern, and because of space considerations, comments about dental and law schools will be limited.

Dental Schools

About 58 schools of dentistry exist in the United States. The enrollment of blacks and other minorities in them is especially uneven from state to state. Thus, enrollment patterns reflect the vigorousness of recruitment efforts in the various states for black dental school students. In the Adams States, the proportion of black dental school students ranges from zero in Virginia (1970) to seven-tenths (.7) of one per cent in Pennsylvania (1970). The evidence is unclear as to what proportion of dental school students actually exist in each of these states in 1975. This is an area in which more data will shed much needed light. (See Table 9)

Table 14 shows the proportion of black dental enrollees in each dental school as of 1970 and Table 15 shows the proportion of blacks in all professional schools, state by state in 1972.

Table 14

HEW Racial and Ethnic Enrollment Data From Institutions of Higher Education, Fall 1970 - Dental Schools - Full-Time Enrollees

(State Summaries)

	AMERICAN INDIAN	%	NEGRO	%	ORIENTAL	%	SPANISH SURNAME	%	MINORITY	%	OTHER	%	TOTAL	%
ALABAMA			9	1.5			2	1.0	5	2.4	201	97.6	206	100.0
CALIFORNIA	4	.2	19	1.1	114	7.0	42	2.5	181	10.9	1,472	89.1	1,653	100.0
CONNECTICUT			1	2.2					1	2.2	45	97.8	46	100.0
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA	3	.1	324	85.1	1	.4	1	.1	329	39.4	448	60.2	777	100.0
GEORGIA			2	.6	3	.9	4	1.1	9	2.5	345	97.5	354	100.0
ILLINOIS	5	.2	24	1.0	15	7.0	2	.2	46	3.1	1,193	96.9	1,237	100.0
INDIANA			11	2.8	5	1.3	1	.3	17	4.3	380	95.7	397	100.0
IOWA					1	.4			1	.4	246	99.6	247	100.0
KENTUCKY			1	.2	7	.4	1	.2	4	.9	462	99.1	466	100.0
LOUISIANA											145	100.0	145	100.0
MASSACHUSETTS			17	2.6	3	.5	1	.2	21	3.7	678	96.4	699	100.0
MICHIGAN	1	.1	19	2.5	5	.7	2	.3	27	3.5	739	96.5	766	100.0
MINNESOTA	2	.5	2	.5	3	.7			7	1.7	416	98.3	423	100.0
MISSOURI			2	.4	4	1.5	16	3.0	24	4.9	505	95.1	531	100.0
NEBRASKA			3	.2	3	.7	1	.7	7	1.6	426	98.4	433	100.0
NEW JERSEY			1	.4	2	.9			3	1.3	227	98.7	230	100.0
NEW YORK			16	1.3	12	.9	7	.6	35	2.8	1,231	97.2	1,266	100.0
NORTH CAROLINA			1	.4	1	.4	1	.4	3	1.2	240	98.8	243	100.0
OHIO	1	.1	19	1.1	11	1.2	1	.1	33	2.5	887	97.5	910	100.0
OREGON					3	11.1	1	3.7	4	14.8	23	85.2	27	100.0
PENNSYLVANIA			12	.7	8	.5	1	.1	21	1.3	1,607	98.7	1,628	100.0
SOUTH CAROLINA			1	.9					1	.9	115	99.1	116	100.0
TENNESSEE			115	19.7	5	.9	1	.2	121	20.7	463	79.3	584	100.0
TEXAS			3	.7	3	.7	10	2.2	16	3.6	430	96.4	446	100.0
VIRGINIA	5	1.5					1	.3	6	1.7	337	98.3	343	100.0
WASHINGTON			2	.8	6	2.1	1	.3	12	3.2	368	96.8	380	100.0
WISCONSIN			2	.4	2	.4	1	.2	5	1.1	454	98.9	459	100.0

Table 14 Continued

(REGION AND U. S. SUMMARIES)

	AMERICAN INDIAN	%	NEGRO	%	ORIENTAL	%	SPANISH SURNAME	%	MINORITY	%	OTHER	%	TOTAL	%
I. NORTHERN AND WESTERN STATES **REGION TOTALS**	11	.1	138	1.3	217	2.0	63	.6	429	4.0	10,342	96.0	10,771	100.0
II. SOUTHERN STATES TOTAL	5	.2	125	5.1	12	.5	19	.8	161	6.6	2,276	93.4	2,437	100.0
III. BORDER STATES + D. C. TOTAL	1	.1	307	17.3	13	.7	18	1.0	339	19.1	1,433	80.9	1,774	100.0
UNITED STATES SUMMARY TOTAL	17	.1	570	3.8	242	1.6	100	.7	929	6.2	14,033	93.8	14,982	100.0

Table 15
Racial and Ethnic Enrollment Data From Institutions of Higher Education, Fall 1972 - Professional Schools

	AMERICAN INDIAN	%	NEGRO	%	ORIENTAL	%	SPANISH SURNAME	%	OTHER	%	TOTAL MINORITY	%	TOTAL	%
ALABAMA	0	.0	118	6.0	1	.0	6	.3	1,828	93.5	125	.0	1,953	100.0
ARIZONA	14	1.0	12	.9	9	.6	61	4.6	1,202	92.6	96	.0	1,298	100.0
ARKANSAS	3	.3	28	2.8	2	.2	0	.0	950	96.6	33	.0	983	100.0
CALIFORNIA	64	.3	814	4.9	1,347	8.1	78	4.7	13,528	81.7	3,009	.0	16,529	100.0
COLORADO	13	.7	48	2.4	19	1.1	59	3.6	1,504	91.9	131	.0	1,635	100.0
CONNECTICUT	4	.1	191	7.2	8	.3	23	.8	2,397	91.3	226	.0	2,623	100.0
DELAWARE	0	.0	199	19.9	0	.0	0	.0	798	80.0	199	.0	997	100.0
DIST. OF COL.	17	.1	1,044	16.3	50	.7	57	.8	5,348	81.0	1,183	.0	6,523	100.0
FLORIDA	10	.2	92	2.3	7	.1	68	1.7	3,697	95.4	177	.0	3,874	100.0
GEORGIA	5	.1	236	6.2	28	.7	6	.1	3,524	92.7	275	.0	3,799	100.0
IDAHO	0	.0	1	.3	2	.7	1	.3	247	98.4	4	.0	251	100.0
ILLINOIS	13	.1	478	3.8	121	.9	90	.7	11,689	94.2	702	.0	12,311	100.0
INDIANA	10	.2	120	3.8	10	.2	19	.4	3,689	95.9	159	.0	3,968	100.0
IOWA	1	.0	53	1.6	18	.5	13	.3	3,214	97.4	85	.0	3,299	100.0
KANSAS	13	.6	31	1.5	10	.5	14	.7	1,892	96.5	68	.0	1,960	100.0
KENTUCKY	7	.1	78	2.2	11	.3	2	.0	3,441	97.2	98	.0	3,539	100.0
LOUISIANA	7	.1	403	7.4	27	.4	42	.7	4,952	91.1	479	.0	5,431	100.0
MAINE	0	.0	3	1.5	0	.0	0	.0	195	98.4	3	.0	198	100.0
MARYLAND	2	.0	140	5.3	27	1.0	21	.7	2,437	92.7	190	.0	2,627	100.0
MASSACHUSETTS	11	.1	442	5.2	111	1.3	82	.9	7,746	92.3	646	.0	8,392	100.0
MICHIGAN	10	.1	732	8.0	55	.6	100	1.1	8,159	90.0	985	.0	9,006	100.0
MINNESOTA	8	.2	47	1.2	20	.5	12	.3	3,755	97.7	87	.0	3,842	100.0

Table 15 Continued

	AMERICAN INDIAN	%	NEGRO	%	ORIENTAL	%	SPANISH SURNAME	%	OTHER	%	TOTAL MINORITY	%	TOTAL	%
MISSISSIPPI	0	.0	31	2.9	5	.4	1	.0	1,006	96.6	37	.0	1,043	100.0
MISSOURI	14	.1	192	2.7	48	.6	54	.7	6,898	95.6	312	.0	7,210	100.0
MONTANA	3	1.6	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	183	98.3	3	.0	186	100.0
NEBRASKA	1	.0	27	.9	28	1.0	11	.4	2,654	97.5	67	.0	2,721	100.0
NEVADA	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	100.0
NEW HAMPSHIRE	5	3.0	3	1.8	0	.0	2	1.2	152	93.8	10	.0	162	100.0
NEW JERSEY	3	.1	248	8.7	6	.2	38	1.3	2,532	89.5	295	.0	2,827	100.0
NEW MEXICO	22	4.2	11	2.1	1	.2	80	15.6	398	77.7	114	.0	512	100.0
NEW YORK	14	.0	563	3.9	145	1.0	143	1.0	13,254	93.8	865	.0	14,119	100.0
NORTH CAROLINA	5	.1	266	8.3	7	.2	2	.0	2,899	91.1	280	.0	3,179	100.0
NORTH DAKOTA	1	.3	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	295	99.6	1	.0	296	100.0
OHIO	5	.0	287	3.5	51	.6	54	.6	7,746	95.1	397	.0	8,143	100.0
OKLAHOMA	32	1.5	21	.9	3	.1	12	.5	2,060	96.8	68	.0	2,128	100.0
OREGON	4	.2	14	.6	39	1.8	9	.4	2,081	96.8	68	.0	2,149	100.0
PENNSYLVANIA	7	.0	438	3.5	57	.4	37	.3	11,783	95.6	539	.0	12,322	100.0
RHODE ISLAND	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	100.0
SOUTH CAROLINA	0	.0	34	2.0	0	.0	0	.0	1,737	97.9	34	.0	1,771	100.0
SOUTH DAKOTA	4	1.1	0	.0	1	.2	0	.0	350	98.5	5	.0	355	100.0
TENNESSEE	4	.0	546	13.1	11	.2	10	.2	3,653	86.3	611	.0	4,464	100.0
TEXAS	47	.7	277	3.1	39	.4	593	6.6	7,932	89.0	976	.0	8,908	100.0
UTAH	7	.2	5	.6	12	1.6	14	1.9	716	95.5	33	.0	749	100.0
VERMONT	0	.0	1	.2	0	.0	0	.0	424	99.7	1	.0	425	100.0
VIRGINIA	1	.0	73	2.1	4	.1	0	.0	3,351	97.7	78	.0	3,429	100.0

AMERICAN INDIAN	%	NEGRO	%	ORIENTAL	%	SPANISH SURNAME	%	OTHER	%	TOTAL MINORITY	%	TOTAL	%
9	.4	59	2.8	76	3.6	15	.7	1,919	92.3	159	.0	2,078	100.0
0	.0	12	.8	1	.0	2	.1	1,366	98.9	15	.0	1,381	100.0
7	.1	79	2.0	18	.4	36	.9	3,654	96.3	140	.0	3,794	100.0
0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	100.0

Law Schools

According to Alex Poinsett, there is one black lawyer for every 7,000 black Americans while the ratio of white lawyer to the white population is 1 to 627.[52] Given this tremendous disparity in both actual numbers and in ratios, and the critical shortages that these data entail, massive recruitment efforts should be underway for the enrollment of black law students. As shown in Table 9, in the Adams States, the proportion of black lawyers ranges from .8 per cent in Florida to 10 per cent of the total in North Carolina. (For the nation as a whole, see Table 16)

Table 16
Racial and Ethnic Enrollment Data from Institutions of Higher Education, Fall 1970 - Law Schools - Full-Time Enrollees

(STATE SUMMARIES)

	AMERICAN INDIAN	%	NEGRO	%	ORIENTAL	%	SPANISH SURNAME	%	MINORITY	%	OTHER	%	TOTAL	%
ALABAMA			8	1.0			1	.1	9	1.2	763	98.8	772	100.0
ARIZONA	8	1.0	8	1.0	2	.2	11	1.7	49	5.9	788	94.1	837	100.0
ARKANSAS	9	1.8	10	2.3			3	.7	21	4.8	414	95.2	435	100.0
CALIFORNIA	21	.3	218	3.4	128	2.1	226	3.7	591	9.7	5,524	90.3	6,115	100.0
COLORADO	2	.4	7	1.6	1	.2	2	.4	12	2.7	437	97.3	449	100.0
CONNECTICUT	2	.3	96	12.2	6	.8	7	.9	111	14.1	678	85.9	789	100.0
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA	13	.4	444	13.9	17	.5	14	.4	488	15.2	2,716	84.8	3,204	100.0
FLORIDA	4	.2	16	.8	2	.1	60	3.0	82	4.1	1,913	95.9	1,995	100.0
GEORGIA			24	2.3	1	.1	3	.3	28	2.7	1,002	97.3	1,030	100.0
IDAHO			1	.7			1	.7	2	1.3	150	98.7	152	100.0
ILLINOIS	4	.1	177	4.6	15	.4	23	.6	219	5.7	3,609	94.3	3,828	100.0
INDIANA	2	.3	43	6.1	3	.3	7	.7	56	5.4	990	94.6	1,046	100.0
IOWA	3	.4	13	1.8	2	.3			18	2.5	710	97.5	728	100.0
KANSAS	1	.1	16	2.3	4	.6	11	1.5	32	4.5	678	95.5	710	100.0
KENTUCKY			25	2.6					25	2.6	933	97.4	958	100.0
LOUISIANA	8	.6	61	4.6	4	.3	12	.9	85	6.4	1,250	93.6	1,335	100.0
MAINE			2	1.2					2	1.2	159	98.8	161	100.0
MARYLAND			6	2.8			1	.5	7	3.3	207	96.7	214	100.0
MASSACHUSETTS	10	.2	152	3.4	17	.3	14	.6	255	4.5	5,373	95.5	5,628	100.0
MICHIGAN	7	.3	135	5.5	6	.2	7	.3	155	6.3	2,309	93.7	2,464	100.0
MINNESOTA	6	.5	19	1.6			3	.3	28	2.4	1,155	97.6	1,183	100.0
MISSOURI	1	.1	24	2.4			14	1.4	39	3.8	980	96.2	1,019	100.0
MONTANA	5	2.8							5	2.8	171	97.2	176	100.0
NEBRASKA			2	.5	2	.3	1	.2	6	.9	652	99.1	658	100.0
NEW JERSEY			109	12.2	3	.3	1	.1	113	12.7	780	87.3	893	100.0
NEW MEXICO	11	5.0					21	9.6	32	14.6	187	85.4	219	100.0
NEW YORK	11	.2	188	2.6	22	.3	65	.9	286	4.0	6,877	96.0	7,161	100.0
NORTH CAROLINA	4	.4	99	10.0			2	.2	105	10.6	888	89.4	993	100.0
NORTH DAKOTA	1	.7			1	.7			2	1.4	146	98.6	148	100.0
OHIO	14	.4	126	3.9	12	.4	4	.1	156	4.8	3,053	95.2	3,207	100.0
OKLAHOMA	4	.5	14	1.6	1	.1	3	.4	22	2.6	832	97.4	854	100.0
OREGON	6	.7	5	.6	6	.7	1	.1	18	2.2	789	97.8	807	100.0
PENNSYLVANIA	2	.1	107	3.4	5	.2	9	.3	123	3.9	3,008	96.1	3,129	100.0
SOUTH CAROLINA			2	.5	1	.2	1	.2	5	.8	646	99.2	651	100.0
SOUTH DAKOTA			1	.5					1	.5	183	99.5	184	100.0
TENNESSEE			17	1.7					17	1.7	1,006	98.3	1,023	100.0
TEXAS	13	.4	177	5.1	8	.2	113	3.4	311	9.3	3,047	90.7	3,358	100.0
UTAH	3	.9	1	.3	3	.8			7	1.8	382	98.2	389	100.0
VIRGINIA	1	.1	28	1.8					29	1.8	1,546	98.2	1,575	100.0
WASHINGTON	14	2.3	16	2.6	3	.5	2	.3	35	5.6	586	94.4	621	100.0
WISCONSIN	2	.2	17	1.6	2	.2	5	.5	26	2.4	1,041	97.6	1,067	100.0

(REGION AND U. S. SUMMARIES)

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	AMERICAN INDIAN	%	NEGRO	%	ORIENTAL	%	SPANISH SURNAME	%	MINORITY	%	OTHER	%	TOTAL	%
I. NORTHERN AND WESTERN STATES **REGION TOTALS** 136		.3	1,498	3.5	243	.6	459	1.1	2,336	5.5	40,407	94.5	42,743	100.0
II. SOUTHERN STATES TOTAL 38		.3	443	3.4	14	.1	193	1.5	692	5.3	12,473	94.7	13,167	100.0
III. BORDER STATES + D. C. TOTAL 28		.3	513	8.2	18	.3	32	.5	581	9.3	5,668	90.7	6,249	100.0
UNITED STATES SUMMARY TOTAL 202		.3	2,454	3.9	277	.4	684	1.1	3,609	5.8	58,550	94.2	62,159	100.0

As we shall see in a subsequent section, the problem of access among lawyers is not confined to the enrollment of blacks in law schools. It is even more insidious since it involves apparently capricious efforts to systematically fail them on bar examinations and to prevent them from practicing law after completing law school training.

Nevertheless, the data presented in Table 9 may appear to be more favorable than it actually is in terms of providing equality of access to all law schools. For example, of the 24 black law students shown for Georgia, 15 of them are enrolled at Emory University and only 5 were on the main campus at Athens. In a telephone conversation with this writer on July 3, 1975, the Admissions Officer of the University of Georgia's School of Law at Athens, William Detwiler, stated that there are now some 27 black students at that institution. However, there appears to be a yearly attrition rate approaching 33 per cent among black law school students at the University of Georgia.

Of the 61 black law students shown for the state of Louisiana, 45 of them are enrolled at all-black Southern University and only 4 are on the campus of LSU-Baton Rouge. In North Carolina, 92 of the 99 black law school students enrolled in the state are enrolled at predominantly black North Carolina Central University and only 7 are enrolled at the Chapel Hill campus of the University of North Carolina. Similarly, only 17 of the 107 black law school students in Pennsylvania are enrolled at the University of Pennsylvania. The remaining students are distributed at other universities within the state.

Clearly, as of 1970, the various Adams States had not done very much to dismantle the dual system of law schools. Nor had others done very much about increasing the number of black law students at the historically all-white publicly supported schools of law.

Advanced Rites of Passage: Bars and Boards, Another Access Issue

There is an urgent need for a detailed national study of the proportions of blacks who successfully pass state bar examinations and who are certified by boards of examiners for such professions as medicine and its twenty-two specializations; law; dentistry; architecture; and so forth. Such a study would be particularly illuminating regarding the role such factors as prejudice, discrimination, the desire to restrict the number of persons who enter the field, quality of training at professional schools, and the quality of pre-professional training on success at passing such examinations.

In recent years, considerable attention has been called to the problem of this "advanced rite of passage" as it pertains to law schools. This situation is the result of the relatively higher rates of failure among black law school graduates, even from the more prestigious institutions, on bar examinations.

The black-white pass rates can be illustrated briefly in the following table.[53]

Table 17

Percentage Pass Rates by Race and State Bar Examinations

State	Black Pass Rate	White Pass Rate
Alabama	20%	70%
California	43	71
Maryland	6	50
Ohio	8	35
South Carolina	15	90
Virginia	20	70
Pennsylvania	30	70

It cannot be assumed, without logical risks, that these disparities are due to the intellectual inferiority of black students nor can they be

similarly attributed to the inability of blacks to pass examinations as some persons would maintain. Some persons have, of course, argued that the poor performance of blacks on law school examinations reflects the poor quality of training blacks have received at the predominantly black law schools where a significant proportion, if not a clear-cut majority, are trained. Some attribute their failure to poor writing styles among black students and poor preparation in the first instance. Others go so far as to assert that most blacks who fail bar examinations entered law schools under the rubric of "special admissions." Consequently, their professors lowered their expectations of them which, in turn, produced lowered preformance among those black law students.[54] These explanations are not acceptable for they do not adequately explain how it is that in Georgia, for example, in 1972, 41 of the 42 blacks who took the bar examination failed, including graduates from the schools of law at Harvard and Yale. The overall pass rate among the 542 persons who sat for the examination that year was 54 per cent, yet the failure rate for blacks was about 98 per cent. Clearly, discrimination was a major component of that episode. It was only after sixteen of the persons who failed the examination sued with the assistance of the American Civil Liberties Union that eleven of them were successfully admitted to the Georgia State Bar. Similar suits have been filed in at least twenty states which attacked what was defined as a discriminatory procedure/practice in relation to black-white success rates on the state bar examination.[55]

Although examiners claim that they do not discriminate, there is reason to suspect that the testing procedures do permit individuals considerable amount of latitude in how to discriminate against an unsuspecting candidate for the bar. In most examinations, applicants are told that names will not be used and that each bar examinee will be given a number. Furthermore,

the individual may be successful on the written portion of the examination but may be failed during the oral interview by the "character and fitness committee." Although the committee, rather than the bar examiners, conducts this interview, its report is forwarded to the state admitting authority and may, in the process, designate the race of the person. Here, once again, race is associated with name and the number assigned to the individual. Thus, all of these procedures do permit any person who wishes to discriminate on the basis of race to do so if desired.[56] Some states no longer have bar examinations; they automatically certify any person to practice law who has graduated from a law school accredited by the state or by another state with whom reciprocal arrangements are made. This procedure may very well be the only method of assuring that those who have been certified by the institution of their training are indeed certified to practice that training, at least in the state of their training.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are offered as methods of attacking some of the more critical problems in increasing access of blacks to graduate and professional schools:

1. Exert continued pressure on all persons in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, and the Department of Justice responsible for enforcing the laws and court decisions relative to higher education. This enforcement should not be directed exclusively to the Adams States but in all jurisdictions in which enforcement is lax and circumvention of the law is practiced. To facilitate this process, an intensive monitoring project should be implemented.

2. Accelerate the pace of recruitment into graduate and professional schools, and begin the process as early as possible.

3. Increase the level of financial assistance to black graduate and professional school students. This assistance should be in the form of Fellowships, Scholarships and outright grants, as well as long-term payment loans. Both need and merit should play significant roles in financial aid decisions. Using these two criteria may well necessitate a re-examination of the meaning of "need" and "merit" in order to provide a greater degree of access equity to all socio-economic classes.
4. Since critical shortages of blacks in medicine, law and dentistry will continue to exist in the foreseeable future, every effort should be made to accelerate the recruitment of blacks into these fields. Simultaneously, special efforts must be made toward recruiting more blacks into other fields of allied health in which the demands are particularly high.
5. Black students should be encouraged to increasingly diversify their fields of study at graduate and semi-professional levels. The fact that 43 per cent of all black graduate students are still enrolled in education programs is shocking in view of the critical shortages existing elsewhere and the talent among persons seeking degrees in Education which should be disseminated to other fields of study. Sponsor workshops and career programs in high schools and colleges to acquaint black students with the increasingly varied career opportunities opening in all fields of study at the graduate and professional levels. The need for black Ph.D.'s, for example, is immense but it is less critical in Education than it is in a number of other fields.
6. Rejected applicants from graduate and professional schools should be continually counseled in order to pinpoint their weaknesses

and what is required to gain admission to graduate and professional schools wherever the potential is manifest among rejected applicants. Other rejected applicants should be counseled into other areas of interest in which their potential can be better fulfilled.

7. Whenever black students are admitted to graduate and/or professional schools under the rubric of "special admission," and if "special admission" connotes academic deficiencies, the admitting institution has the first responsibility to provide whatever academic support services necessary for assisting such students to eliminate those deficiencies and then to be re-classified as a regularly admitted student.

8. Encourage equity in the availability of professors and other academic resources to black students enrolled in graduate and professional schools.

9. Encourage equity in grading and in the academic preparation of all students. Wherever they exist, condemn and eliminate the racist practices of lowering performance expectations of black students. It is just as cruel and crippling to deceive a person into believing that he/she is good to excellent in accomplishments, when in fact he/she is not, as it is to fail them when they deserve to be graded satisfactority or with honors.

10. Major studies should be undertaken which examine:

    a. retention and attrition in graduate and professional schools; including factors associated with retention and established programs designed to reduce attrition at those levels;

    b. comparative Success/Failure Rates of black and white professional graduates in taking bar examinations, medical

boards, and in being certified by Boards of Examiners in Architecture and in other fields requiring State certification. (Encourage plaintiffs to seek redress whenever they feel justifiability aggrieved: and

c. Access of black faculty, administrators and staff to graduate and professional school employment; in what capacities are they employed; at what rank and salary, and the rate of promotion or advancement.

Footnotes

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6. cf. Blackwell, Op. Cit. Pp. 185-189 and 274; "Information on Minority Group Students," Medical School Admission Requirements, 1976-77; Commission on Human Resources of the National Research Council, Minority Groups Among United States Doctoral Level Scientists, Engineers, and Scholars. Washington, D.C.: National Academy of Sciences, December 1974; Betty Vetter, Professional Manpower: A Resource Service of Data on Women and Minorities Washington, D.C.: The Scientific Manpower Commission, 1975; "Minority Students in Graduate Schools," Intellect 102 (Feb. 1974) 292-283; "Equality of Minorities in Law Schools," Intellect 102 (April 1974), 423; K.G. Mommson, "Professionalism and the Racial Context of Career Patterns Among Black American Doctorates: A Note on the Brain Drain Hypothesis," Journal of Negro Education 42 (April 1973) 191-204; F.G. Adams and M.H. Grant, "Black Health Manpower Need" Community and Junior College Journal 44 (March 1974), 11-12; J.C. Hancock, "Engineering Demand Outstrips Enrollment," Intellect 101 (March 1973), 350; A.A. Sorenson, "Black Americans and the Medical Profession, 1930-1970," Journal of Negro Education 41 (Fall 1972), 337-342; "More Blacks in Biomedical Science," Intellect 101 (October 1972) 13; James P. Comer, "Need is Now: Negro Psychiatrists for Negro Patients," Mental Hygiene 57 (Winter 1973), 3-6; Alex Poinsett, "Seeking Youth for Careers as Doctors," Ebony (October 1974)148-155; B.W. Nelson, et. al., "Educational Pathway Analysis for the Study of Minority Representation in Medical School," Journal of Medical Education 46 (1971) 745-749; B.W. Nelson, et. al.,"Expanding Educational Opportunities in Medicine for Blacks and other Minority Students," Journal of Medical Education 45 (1970) 731-736; Fred E. Crossland, Graduate Education and Black American New York: Ford Foundation, 1968; James Harvey, Minorities and Advanced Degrees. Research Currents, ERIC Higher Education, June 1, 1972, and "Occupational Manpower and Training Needs: Revised 1974 Washington, D.C. Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, 1975.

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9. Richard Nemec, "Black Scientists," The New Republic 166 (June 1972), 15-17.

10. Beverly T. Watkins, "Dental Educators Ask for Criticism and Get It", Chronicle of Higher Education 9:6 (March 3, 1975)

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13. cf. Malcolm G. Scully, "A Glut of College Graduates" The Chronicle of Higher Education 9:5 (March 24, 1975) Pp. 1,8; and Occupational Manpower and Training Needs, Revised 1974, loc. cit.

14. Leslie and Morrison, Op. Cit., p. 351.

15. Malcolm G. Scully, Op. Cit.

16. Blackwell, Op. Cit., p. 189.

17. Richard Nemec, Op. Cit., p. 16.

18. For a detailed discussion of some of these efforts, see: "Equality of Minorities in Law Schools", Intellect 102 (April 1974) 423-473; "Locating Minority Students", Intellect 101: 2348 (March 1973) 347-348; Sister M.J. Ksycki, "Careers in the Health Professions", Science Teacher 40 (October 1973), 20-22; Gardner Van Dyke, "Advanced Standing in the Professional School", College and University 49:4 (Summer 1974) 618-621; Clark Kerr, "Medical and Dental Education for the Health Career Crisis", Op. Cit.; Anthony Diekema and William J. Hilton, Op. Cit.; "More Blacks in Biomedical Sciences, Loc. Cit.; Andrew A. Sorenson, Op. Cit.; W.L. Goodwin, "Increasing Black Enrollment in Southern Colleges", School and Society 100: 2339 (February 1972) 78-79; Davis G. Johnson, et. al., "Recruitment and Progress of Minority Medical School Entrants, 1970-1972", Journal of Medical Education Vol. 50 (July 1975) 715-737; From Isolation to Mainstream, A Report by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, March 1971, and Frank Bowles and Frank DeCosta, Between Two Worlds: A Profile of Negro Higher Education - A Carnegie Commission Sponsored Study, 1971.

19. cf. Alex Poinsett, Op. Cit. and Blackwell, Op. Cit.

20. See Intellect 101 (October 1972) p. 13

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22. Ibid.

23. Davis G. Johnson, et. al., Op. Cit.

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25. cf. the following studies for an elaboration of the points which follow: James R. Schoemer, et. al., "A Study of the Effect of Non-Traditional Grades on Admission to Graduate School and the Awarding of Financial Assistance", College and University Vol. 48 (Spring, 1973), Pp. 147-153; Dale E. Mattson, et. al., "Counseling the Rejected Professional School Applicant", College and University Vol. 48 (Spring, 1973) Pp. 524-527; Hunter M. Boylan, "Facilitating Minority Admissions: Some Legal Considerations", College and University Vol. 48 (Spring 1973) 171-176; Hugh J. Watson, et. al., "A Heuristic Model for Law School Admissions: Screening", College and University Vol. 48 (Spring, 1973) Pp. 195-204; Edward D. Rhine, et. al., "Admissions and Financial Aid for Minority Students at Professional Schools", College and University Vol. 46 (Summer 1971) Pp. 426-430; Henry D. Musselman, "Does the Transcript Tell Enough", College and University Vol. 46:4 (Summer 1971) Pp. 606-614; Raymond B. Anderson, "Dollars and Graduate Education-The Need for a New View of Financial Aid and Reassessment of Priorities," College and University 48:4 (Summer 1973) Pp. 527-543; Paul F. Kinder, "Admissions and Financial Aid-Ever the Twain Will Meet", College and University 48:4 (Summer 1973) Pp. 287-294 and Ralph E. Bigelow, "Traditional Vs. Non-Traditional Graduate Admissions", College and University 48:4 (Summer 1973) Pp. 476-492.

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27. Henry D. Musselman, Op. Cit.

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30. Richard Dremuk, "GREB Study of Admission and Financial Aid Policies-What Next?" College and University 48 (Summer, 1973) 338-344.

31. Hunter M. Boylan, Op. Cit. p. 176.

32. E.P. Caruthers, "Side Door Entrance to Professional Schools" College and University 47 (Summer 1972) 291-294.

33. Ibid.

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35. Richard Dremuk, Op. Cit., p. 542.

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45. Note: The data upon which this section is based, including the primary charts are excerpted from Racial and Ethnic Enrollment Data From Institutions of Higher Education, Fall, 1970, DHEW, OCR-72-8, 1973, and Racial and Ethnic Enrollment Data From Institutions of Higher Education, Fall, 1972, DHEW, OCR - 74-13. Subsequent graduate enrollment data for 1973 are based primarily upon Elaine H. El-Khawas and Joan L. Kinzer, Enrollment of Minority Graduate Students at Ph.D. Granting Institutions Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, August 1974.

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53. Ibid., p. 98.

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